

ENGLESKA TRGOVAČKA ČITANKA

SASTAVIO
PROF. MILAN DRVODELIĆ



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PREDGOVOR.

Ova je čitanka imala biti drugi dio moje gramatike engleskoga jezika za trgovačke škole*, ali je sada, praktičnih razloga radi, izdana kao posebna knjiga. — Dok je gramatici dodana samo čitanka običnih štiva, dotle je u ovu čitanku uvršteno samo gradivo, koje se bavi pojedinim granama trgovačkog i ekonomskog života. — Pregleda i zgodnije upotrebe radi razdijelio sam je na dva dijela. — Prvi dio obuhvaća štiva lakšega sadržaja, pisana priprostim i lako shvatljivim jezikom. — Drugi dio obuhvaća teža štiva, koja su pisana stručnim jezikom, te sadržaje obilje stručne frazeologije, potrebne svakome tko hoće da se uputi u praktičnu poslovnu engleštinu.

Pisac.

* Drvodelić: »Engleska gramatika za trgovačke i slične škole«. — Naklada knjižare St. Kugli, Zagreb, 1927.

PRVI DIO

OPĆENITA ŠTIVA

1. WHAT IS MEANT BY BUSINESS.

Business plays such a large part in everyday life, and the word is so often used, that it may be well to notice what is meant by it. — Everyone may be said to make it his business to do something by which he may gain a livelihood, but the term business means much more than that. The treasures of the earth and their uses could never have been made so available as they are, if nothing had been done, and no thought had been given to the subject, beyond what each man could do when working alone.

It is by the united labours of many that benefits have been gained from the products of the earth. — These benefits include not only food and clothing but also new means of production and of sending the surplus products of one place to another. Thousands of people work as part of a great plan and make for us articles we require in our daily life. The result is that products can now be bought much more cheaply than was possible in the old days, when each person worked alone in the making of only a few articles.

In the factory the man who controls the employment of thousands of workpeople is like the architect of a building, who has to think out all parts of his plan, and make them fit in with one another, so as to produce the best result. — A great manufactory is not unlike a great piece of machinery, having many parts all working for the same end, and the business manager is the chief engineer. If the business is large, he is assisted by a number of other managers, each having the control of some part of the machinery, and having to see that it works in harmony with the rest. Thus the thought and the contriving, which make all labour profitable, are a part of what is meant by business.

The other side of business, which is concerned with bringing the products of the factory and the field to the people who need them, is perhaps even a larger part of what is meant by the term. There are many thousands of persons engaged in this work, and they range from the chairman of a great public company, or the head of a business firm, to the clerks employed in the offices.

It is estimated that there are nearly a quarter of a million of clerks, managers, and partners engaged in business in the City of London alone. These and many others in the provincial towns are all employed, in one way or another, in the business of getting things sent to the people who need them. Business is thus made up of the united efforts of a great many people to bring into the market at the cheapest rate the treasures and produce of the earth, and the things that are made from them. The end of all business, therefore, is the happiness and contentment of the people to whom it does this great service.

Business also means something for the men who are engaged in it, and the secret of their success, or their failure, will be found in the way in which they perform their part. To be successful in business a man must have a high character for honesty and industry, and a clear idea of the way in which he can serve the public and make them see that it is to their interest to have dealings with him; for all successful business means the confidence of the public. Some men have started in business without some or all of these qualities, and have failed, but others, by means of their business abilities, have taken high rank among the great merchant princes, who have added a lustre to the commercial fame of England.

2. HOW GOODS ARE SOLD.

In order to support life we must have food, warmth, and shelter. Food is necessary to repair the continual waste which the body undergoes; the body must be suitably clothed, for warmth is a "condition of life"; and a retreat must be provided where we may rest after the labours of the day, in order to fit us to meet the demands of the morrow.

Very few persons are able to secure at first hand even the most simple means of satisfying these needs. The farmer is perhaps able to do so better than any other member of the community. His crops and flocks and herds will provide him with food and the materials with which to fashion more or less suitable clothing. Contrast the farmer's opportunities with those of the collier; the latter delves in the bowels of the earth to procure coal, which, invaluable in itself, will satisfy none of his vital wants, but that of external warmth.

In early times people were far from numerous, and their wants were exceedingly simple and few. Nowadays we draw upon the whole wide world to minister to our needs, and as the individual cannot collect the necessary commodities for himself, others must do so for him, and these persons are the retail shopkeepers, whose shops enter so largely into our daily lives as to render any explanation of their purpose almost unnecessary.

Let us, however, consider the wares which a grocer and provision dealer offers for sale. What labour and industry in every part of the habitable globe are reflected here; what widely separated peoples of different colours and varying creeds have contributed to the well-filled shelves! What white-winged vessels have hurried their cargoes over intervening oceans, that our daily wants may be supplied! Here we see the tea of Assam and Ceylon, the fragrant coffee of India and Brazil, and the sugar produced from the canes of the West Indies or the beet of the Continent. British butter, bacon, and eggs are ranged alongside those from the United States, Canada, Western Europe, and even far distant Australasia. The rice of Burmah and the raisins of Valencia flank the tinned meats of the Pampas of South America and the preserved fruits of California. On every side the varied products of East and West vie with each other, and at the counter may be seen the thrifty housewife spending her money to the best advantage.

In the back streets of our large towns are still smaller shops, where humbler individuals replenish their scanty stores according to their means. The very poor are unable to purchase more than is required for their immediate necessities. Buying small quantities means paying an increased price, since the

goods have passed through many hands, and the multiplication of the transactions causes extra time and trouble to the retailer. It is for this reason that the poor pay more for the necessities of life than persons in better circumstances.

But how does the retail shopkeeper refurnish his ever lessening stock? He procures his goods from the wholesale dealer, or merchant, whose shop mainly differs from his own only in a few particulars. There are no well-dressed windows to attract customers. Goods are sold only in large quantities. The wholesale grocer and provision dealer sells tea by the chest and sugar by the bag; bacon and hams are never cut, but are quoted by the hundredweight; rice is offered by the bag and eggs by the box of some six hundred or twelve hundred or more. The wholesale draper does not sell cotton, woollen, and linen stuffs, by the yard, but by the price containing many yards; articles of underclothing go in dozens and small wares by the gross. In all trades the transactions vary but little in method and practice.

The retail dealer to be successful in his business must possess an intimate knowledge of the goods in which he deals, and the requirements of the particular class for which he caters; he must be quick to calculate the margin of profit, that the prices quoted will allow him to make, when he disposes of the goods in smaller quantities to his customers; and he must familiarize himself with the prospects of changing markets, that he may not be overstocked when prices go down, or understocked when prices go up.

An important factor in selling goods is the multiple shop system. In every large town there are firms, such as grocers, bakers, drapers, etc., that have several branches distributed over a wide area. This system is economical, especially as regards buying. Again, many large businesses have branches throughout the whole country. Another widely used system is the departmental store, such as Harrods and Selfridges in London.

A "combine" is a group of very large businesses. An example of this is the British Imperial Tobacco Company, which embraces many well-known tobacco businesses.

When a vessel reaches port and discharges her cargo, the owner of the goods may not have been able to find a customer, or, it may be, he decides to keep them for a time, so that a rise in prices may increase his profits. The commodity is then transferred to a store or warehouse until he is ready to dispose of it. The warehouse may be his own, but it is more likely to be the property of a railway or dock company, where he will pay for the accommodation according to the space his goods occupy and the time they remain there.

Bonded stores are warehouses where dutiable commodities are stored, and are under the direct control of the Customs or the Excise departments. Usually they can be opened only by the use of two keys, one of which is in the possession of the bonder, while the other is held by the authorities. Notice being given to withdraw stores, an officer tests them to assess the duty, and on payment of the amount a warrant is issued to allow the goods to be "cleared".

Commodities do not pass from the shipper direct to the wholesale or retail dealer. The services of the broker or the commission agent are called into requisition. Brokers deal only in huge quantities, and, generally speaking, their occupation is to bring buyer and seller together, receiving an agreed percentage on the amount of business that results. They, as well as factors and

various grades of merchants, are often called "middlemen", and most of their business is transacted on the various "exchanges".

The manufacturer, on the other hand, resorts to almost wholly different methods to secure customers for his goods. Advertisement is one great means by which this is achieved, and never has this method received so much attention as at the present day.

He also employs persons to call upon prospective customers, to show specimens of the actual goods that are offered for sale, and to point out the special features presented by their particular "line" of goods. These are commercial travellers, all of different grades of responsibility. Some "work" only the towns and immediate district in which they live; the "ground" of others extends to a county; in some cases only the boundaries of the kingdom limit their sphere of operations, while others roam over the whole habitable globe, and carry their wares into the most out-of-the-way markets.

These travellers have to study the habits and customs of the people, and must note any modifications in the patterns or quality of the goods that local circumstances may render desirable, for it is astonishing what apparently trivial considerations may influence the gain or loss of orders.

3. ADVERTISING.

Although advertising is new in its aspects, in its idea it is exactly as old as the human race. — Advertising has two histories. — The history of the art of advertising began yesterday. — The history of advertising proper runs back through the ages and into the haze of hoary antiquity. — The travelling pedlar of the stone-age was followed by the itinerant merchants assembled in market towns. — These merchants came from far and wide to fairs, advertising their commodities by cries that distinguished the different trades and articles.

When fairs and markets became large enough some merchants saw the advantage of opening a shop, and then came the signboard, which was known in ancient Greece, and was extremely common in Rome. — On the walls of Pompeii have been found many advertisements. — Papyri more than three thousand years old, offering rewards for runaway slaves, have been exhumed from the ruins of Thebes. — The Greeks and Romans whitened a place on the walls of their houses for written announcements. — We owe our knowledge of Egyptian hieroglyphics to an advertisement. — Until 1799 the scholars of the world had racked their brains for a key to the inscriptions on Egyptian temples, but without success. — But in that year French engineers with Napoleon found the famous Rosetta stone in the Nile mud. — This tablet bore an inscription in 3 languages—Greek, the hieroglyphic language, and Coptic, which was the language of the common people of Egypt. In 136 B. C. Ptolemy Epiphanes remitted some taxes to the priesthood, by whom many of these basal tablets were erected throughout the land, bearing a eulogy of the king in 3 languages. By the aid of this stone the hieroglyphic language was recovered.

The public crier was one of the earliest advertising mediums known in Greece and Rome. — Advertising continued to be more or less primitive until the Middle Ages. — The chief media were signs, public criers, and written

advertisements. — In the days when few could read, much less write, it was customary for each keeper of a shop to distinguish his place with a pictorial sign.

Almost the first fruit of the printing press was advertising in the shape of handbills and placards. — The real history of advertising, however, began with the rise of the newspaper. From the very beginning of newspaper advertising it was used by quacks. In 1672 John Houghton, a Fellow of the Royal Society, undertook to educate English merchants in the art of advertising. He advertised servants, schools, houses, and lodgings. He instructed the public, to use the columns of his weekly paper and built up a large patronage for his paper.

Transportation advertising became common in the newspapers about the beginning of the eighteenth century in the shape of stage-coach announcements. In 1712, a tax of 3/6 was laid upon each advertisement, regardless of size. This tax was abolished in 1832, in which year the London Times, paid the Government £ 170,000 as its advertising tax for the year. —

During the first half of the last century the United States produced one of the greatest advertisers of all times — P. T. Barnum. — He left his impress upon American business methods. — Another born advertising genius was the Irishman Robert Bonner, who made his NEW YORK LEDGER one of the most profitable publications in the world. — These two men are representative of a period that is past in advertising. — The development of advertising as we know it to-day is very recent — a matter of less than 50 years. As newspapers increased in number, advertisers learned to address themselves to a wider public. — This work is largely done by the advertising agent. — The first advertising agent, it is believed, began business in 1846. — The next step in systematising advertising was the publication, in 1869, of the Newspaper Directory, giving a list of all the periodicals. — The first magazine advertisements were inserted about 1867. — Two factors have made the revolution of our periodical literature in the past years possible: first, the linotype machine, the rotary press, the photoengraving process, and improved mechanical appliances; second, the immense volume of advertising that can be circulated and made profitable by modern periodicals. —

Advertising has brought down the cost of newspapers, enlarged their circulation and sphere of influence. — The income from subscriptions and sales of a modern magazine or newspaper seldom pay the cost of its production: advertising is back of it all. — Advertising has become such a force in modern business that many shrewd business men act on the principle »If sales go down, increase advertising«.

4. A SALESMAN'S CREED.

(American.)

I believe that honest salesmanship is the greatest mission on earth.

I believe that honest salesmanship has done more to civilize and advance mankind than has any other single influence.

I believe that the salesman is at once a pilot and a professor, a pioneer and a priest, a plenipotentiary and a prime minister.

- I believe that good work is the only foundation of a stimulating faith, and that only by stimulus of faith can good work be done.
- I believe that the only worthwhile joy in life comes from the daily, workaday exercise of kindness, courtesy, cheerfulness, friendship, generosity, helpfulness toward our fellows, from colleague to competitor, from king and prince to coolie and pauper.
- I believe in brains more than in bullion, in men more than in money, in character more than in coin, in service more than in specie.
- I believe in the sacredness of promises, in the sanctity of agreements, and in the sublimity of obligations.
- I believe in yesterday a little, in today much, and in tomorrow still more, and more than ever.
- I believe that honest goods can be sold by honest methods to anybody, anywhere, at any time.
- I believe in the firm I serve, in the goods I sell, and in the salesman I call M E.
- I believe that the fault is entirely my own every time I fail to make a sale, win a prospect, or please a customer.
- I believe, so help me brain and brawn and boost and business gumption, And that I am ready now and here to sell goods in accordance with this philosophy.

5. MONEY.

Exchange by barter was at first inter-tribal or international rather than local. — The development of agriculture gave fixed homes and horizons, unfolded the possibilities of the division of labour, and greatly increased the population. — Exchange of the different products became essential, and as the village developed into the town, and the town into the nation, exchange became wider. — The impossibility of doing business speedily and satisfactorily by means of barter constrained peoples to introduce a universal third commodity, called money, as the means of exchange. The best money-material is that which is of universal desire; is not subject to rapid changes of value; is capable of being divided up without losing in value; is convenient to carry about; is recognizable at sight by most ignorant people who use it; is of intrinsic value; and is comparatively imperishable. Gold and silver, universally desirable, of great intrinsic beauty and comparative scarcity, best fulfil the conditions. At first the precious metals were used in the form of ingots or small pieces of the metal, which had to be assayed and weighed in order to ascertain their value. Then, to make exchange more easy, the practice grew among the merchants of making their ingots of a fixed standard of fineness, and putting upon them their own private marks. The period at which the precious metals were first made into coins is unknown, but they were used in the early civilizations of Assyria, Lydia, and China. Gradually, the various governments adopted coinage as their exclusive business, marking their coins with their own distinctive marks, fixing the weight and standard of fineness of the precious metal in their coins, and making them legal tender.

The value of money is its purchasing power, which depends upon the general level of prices. This level varies with the relation or proportion

between the total amount of money in circulation, and the total amount of goods or commodities in existence which must be exchanged for that money.

Coined money is of two sorts — standard and token money. The former is that in which the fine metal used fixes the standard of all the coins used in the country. Whatever coin is chosen must be received for coinage in unlimited quantities by the State, and coins made with that metal must be made unlimited legal tender, that is, capable of discharging any debt, however large. Coins of which the metal value is, normally, less than the face value are called token coins. The value of the fine metal in them is fixed by law in relation to the value of the standard metal. The non-standard metal is not received in unlimited quantity for coinage at the mint, and the coins are never legal tender except up to a low limit—up to 40 s, e. g., in England silver coins. The profit made on token money goes to the Government. Coined money is used only to a limited extent in the discharge of large pecuniary obligations, even in domestic trade. — As a substitute for coin paper money is used. Whatever the form of paper currency may be, its efficiency as a perfect substitute for coins depends on the ability of the holder of the paper to obtain always the equivalent in coin. In payments made within the bounds of any particular country, bank notes and cheques are the usual substitutes for coin. Bank notes are promises of a bank to pay; cheques, orders to a bank to pay, made by persons who have money at their credit in the banks on which the orders are made.

6. BORROWERS AND LENDERS.

Charles Lamb writes, in one of his essays, that mankind is composed of two distinct races, the men who borrow and the men who lend. The men who borrow are those who are in need of ready money, while the men who lend are those who have more ready money than they need. — Of course, people as a rule do not lend money for nothing; the person who borrows has to pay interest on the loans which he raises, and those whose credit is bad have to pay a heavy rate of interest, while those whose credit is good can borrow easily and at a low rate. People will not generally lend money unless they get some kind of security, which often takes the form of a charge on property to which the lender can resort if the borrower makes default in payment.

Thus one of the commonest forms of borrowing among the poor is to go to a pawnbroker, and leave with him some article on which he lends money. The article so left, which is called a pawn or a pledge, is the pawnbroker's security, and if the money lent is not repaid, or interest paid, at the expiration of a year, the pawnbroker can realize his security, that is, sell the pawn and repay to himself what he has advanced. Pledging or pawning is the borrowing of money on the security of movable articles of property, which are handed over to the person who lends. A mortgage is a similar transaction, except that in most cases the security is not at first handed over to the person who lends, but remains in the possession of the borrower. To mortgage is to give to the lender a charge on property in return for an advance made by him. The person who borrows is called the mortgagor, and the person who lends is called the mortgagee. Mortgages are of two kinds, mortgages of land and mortgages of chattels or movable articles.

Suppose that a man owns some land and is in need of ready money; he can generally without difficulty obtain an advance on a mortgage to the extent of two-thirds of the value of the property. Land may be mortgaged, either by the mortgagor conveying it to the mortgagee, or by depositing the title deeds with him. In many cases the mortgagor, so long as he pays interest, remains in possession of the property; but when the interest falls into arrear, then the mortgagee generally enters into possession, and has the power to sell it. — If the mortgagee sells, then the mortgagor loses the property altogether, but, if the sale produces more than the principal sum advanced, together with the interest and the expenses of the sale, the mortgagee is bound to return the surplus to the mortgagor. If the mortgagee enters into possession of the mortgaged property, he has to account for what he receives, and the mortgagor has a right to redeem, that is, can get back the property, on payment of the principal debt, and all interest due and all charges properly incurred by the mortgagee in the management of the property. — The mortgagor can only be deprived of his "equity of redemption", as his right to redeem is called, either by a sale of the property, or by judgment against him in a foreclosure action, by which he is "foreclosed" or deprived of his equity of redemption.

A mortgage of personal chattels, such as the furniture in a house or the stock-in-trade of a business, is carried out by means of a document called a bill of sale. — Lending money on a bill of sale is a very risky proceeding, as the lender may easily lose his security by the landlord distraining for rent, or in consequence of some informality in the document.

7. WHERE CORN IS BOUGHT AND SOLD.

The best wheat is spring wheat, sown in April or May, and reaped in September. — It is stronger, and when made into dough may be drawn out into threads without breaking. — Winter wheat is sown in October and November, and harvested in July. —

"But", you ask, "where is all buying and selling of the golden grain of the earth carried on?" First of all in London there is the Baltic Shipping and Mercantile Exchange. — This trade centre is a big room, a kind of covered-in market-place, where shippers, importers, and brokers meet and do their business. — Under this same roof we may meet ship-owners who want cargoes, and freight agents who want ships. — When we make our way up to the door, we find from the doorkeeper, who is an imposing person in a gorgeous livery, that admission is only given to members, or to very privileged visitors. —

As privileged visitors we are allowed to enter, and soon learn what a confusing business it is. We notice, too, another dignified person, seated at a big table, at one side of the hall, where his chief occupation appears to be to call out in a deep, solemn voice, some mysterious words addressed to no one in particular. — Then we discover that he is not saying anything really mysterious; he is only telling everybody that he has telegrams for Mr. This and Mr. Somebody Else.

In front of us is a large notice-board, from which we read an interesting Statement. — It tells us exactly all the wheat and flour now coming to the ports of the United Kingdom, all the maize, and all the barley. — What are

the figures? Why of wheat and flour 3,000,000 quarters and of maize 500,000. — Then, coming in ships to the ports of the continent there are other quantities. Another announcement says that at the Liverpool corn market the price at 10.45 a. m. (it is now only a few minutes after 11 o' clock) was 10/ per cental (100 pounds).

Glancing round this large room, we notice men standing in little groups in eager conversation. — Then, seated at side tables, we see others are hastily dashing off telegrams to prospective buyers. — Everyone is as busy as a bee, for this is not a resting place for drones. — Indeed, it is a place where only the keenest intelligence, the shrewdest knowledge of men, and the commercial geography of the world are of any use.

At Mark Lane, London, there is the Corn Exchange, where samples of wheat and flour are shown, and factors are selling and millers buying perhaps entire shiploads. There are three market days every week, and up to the hour of closing, this spacious market-place is thronged with buyers and sellers. — It is curious to see skilled eyes testing flour, and comparing samples. —

When we turn to the market reports in the daily newspaper, we find that the market has been steady, because prices showed no inclination to move. — When the market is "firm", it is understood that prices are disposed to rise, "dull" when they are inclined to drop, "weak" when sellers are many and buyers few, "demoralized" when prices are dropping rapidly, "booming" when prices are rushing up suddenly. —

Our peep into "The Baltic" and "Mark Lane" has given us an insight into the vast and ever growing trade. — We have seen that money is made in small fractions, but the transactions are so large that a man may make or lose hundreds and even thousands of pounds in a day. — Our attention is called to a gentleman who moves about quietly, doing a little deal here and a big deal there, the results of which stagger us when we see the total figures at the end of the day. — Most men with his responsibilities would never sleep at nights for anxiety. — Yet, he is calm, cool, and collected.

"Then", you ask, "does long life and much experience enable men to say whether it is best to sell to-day when prices are up, and buy to-morrow when prices are down, or whether it is best to buy to-day and sell to-morrow?" — "Oh no," we are told, "that is not so". — Experience may be, and indeed is, an admirable thing; but a willingness to change your mind is much more valuable, or in other words a readiness to grasp the tendency of the market, whether that tendency is what you expected or not — that is the quality which brings success and makes fortunes.

8. THROUGH THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE.

Let us suppose that the reader is in the Chicago branch office of the New York Stock Exchange firm of John Doe & Co. and wishes to buy one hundred shares of U. S. Steel common stock at the current market price. —

You fill out a buying order form provided by the brokers, instructing them to buy one hundred shares of Steel at the "market". — Your written order is recorded by an order clerk and transmitted over the broker's private

telegraph wire to their New York office. — Here it is received and turned over to an order clerk who transmits it at once to the Exchange floor over a private telephone. — The floor telephone is situated in one of the many telephone booths of the principal room of the Exchange. — As the telephone clerk receives your order, he writes it on an order slip and at the same time presses a button in his booth, which operates a number on the great black annunciator board. — This number has been assigned by the Exchange to the floor member of your brokerage firm and signals him to his booth.

With your order in his hand your broker must buy for you 100 shares of U. S. Steel at as low a price as they can be bought in the market at that time, —

When U. S. Steel stock was listed on the Exchange it was assigned to "Post" two. — This "Post" then is the "market" for U. S. Steel. — Similarly, the several "Trading Posts" throughout the room are each the markets or shops for 20 or 30 different stocks. — On his arrival at Post Two your broker hears Steel being offered at 115¼; he also hears another broker bidding 115½ for it. — Thus he is at once informed of the true market for the stock — 115½ a share bid, offered at 115¼ a share.

As your broker has authority to buy the stock for you "at the market" or at the lowest price at which it can be had, he says to the broker offering to sell at 115¼ "take it" and the transaction is made. No written agreement or memorandum of any kind is exchanged by the contracting brokers. — All contracts made on the floor of the Exchange, involving in the aggregate sometimes upwards of one hundred million of dollars in a day, are made in this apparently informal and unbusinesslike way and yet any attempt to escape or get out of a contract so made is a thing unknown in the experience of the Exchange.

Your broker sends to his telephone clerk a memorandum report that he has bought 100 Steel at 115¼ from SO and SO (another broker). The clerk promptly phones the report to the office, whence it is telegraphed to the Chicago branch office. — So swiftly does all this take place, that there are instances in the ordinary course of business, in which orders given in San Francisco have been executed on the floor of the Exchange, 3000 miles away, and reported back to the customers within 60 seconds time. —

The Contract which your broker closed when he said the words "Take it" obliges him to receive before 2 : 15 P. M. on the full business day next following, a certificate for 100 shares of Steel Stock and to pay for it \$ 11, 525. — In the meantime the Chicago branch office mails you a memorandum of the transaction, stating that they have bought "for your account and risk in accordance with the rules of the New York Stock Exchange" 100 U. S. Steel stock at 115¼".

If you are buying the stock outright, you will pay on the day following the purchase price, plus the broker's commission. — If you so direct them, the branch office will then instruct the home office in New York City to have the certificate transferred to your name. — Should you sell your stock at a later date, your broker will pay you the proceeds of the sale, less the commission and the Federal and State sales taxes.

Standing in the "Steel Crowd" at the moment your stock was bought, was one of the "Reporters" on the floor of the Exchange, employed by the New York Quotation Company, which operates the ticker service. — When the transaction is effected, that is, when the minds of your broker and the selling broker meet on quantity and price, the Reporter makes a memorandum of the sale on a slip of paper, reporting the transaction like this: 100 X 115¼, meaning one hundred shares of U. S. Steel sold at \$ 115¼ a share, X being the symbol for U. S. Steel. — This slip of paper is at once placed before one of the five ticker operators stationed at his sending machine on the floor, who flashes it over several hundred ticker instruments located in Members' offices in the Wall Street section of the New York City. — The Western Union Telegraph Company, under arrangement with the New York Quotation Company picks the quotation up from one of these tickers and flashes it over its ticker system, serving many principal cities of the Mississippi. — Thus you in the Chicago branch office, and countless others, see the printed report of your purchase on a normally active day a few moments after your stock has been bought in the open market. — This instant and broad publicity given to transactions on the Exchange makes deception in regard to market prices of listed securities practically impossible. —

9. MARKETS.

One of the peasantest sights is the market-place of an old-fashioned country town on a market-day. — In many such towns the weekly market is held, in the open air. A good many towns have built covered markets. — There are cattle-markets, corn-markets, &c. In some places there are markets held in connection with the chief trade of the neighbourhood. — The stalls set up on the market-day are very simple. Different trades keep to different parts of the market-place. — The market-cross still remains in some towns round which a shelter is sometimes to be found. — In some places a drinking-fountain or the town-pump stand where once the cross stood. — In old times, the mayor would read out public notices there on the market-day. — Not far from there were usually the stocks, the pillory, and the whipping-post. —

Fairs, in the Middle Ages, provided for much of the wholesale trade of the country, and markets for the retail trade. — Nobody can set up a stall in the market as he pleases. — On the market-day we see the beadle going about from stall to stall taking the market-toll from each stall-holder. Such tolls go towards the expenses of the town, and help to keep down the rates. — In many places the market beadle rings a bell to give notice of the opening and closing of the market. — Formerly special officers saw that the goods were sold at the proper market price, and that there was no cheating in weight and measure.

10. PRODUCERS, CAPITALISTS, AND MERCHANTS.

Let us imagine a man cast upon an uninhabited island without food, clothes, or tools. The first condition of his lonely lot is to maintain life, and to do this he must labour to obtain food and clothing, and render some cave or hollow tree a safe dwelling-place. The man who thus works to get his own food

and make his own clothing becomes a producer. Production is the result of labour, and as soon as he produces more than necessary for his immediate wants and begins to lay aside a store of necessities for future use, he really becomes a capitalist.

Here then we have the two primary conditions without which human life cannot be supported, namely, there must be an accumulation of the product of former labour, which is capital, and if there is to be any degree of comfort, there must be exchanges of these collected materials.

In a simple state of society, where the hunter exchanges skins with the farmer who grows wheat, the one must have a greater store of wheat than he can consume himself, and the other must have a surplus store of skins. In a more advanced state of society, when money is exchanged for the surplus stock, the transfer from one to the other is just as real as the barter of wheat for skins. The only difference is that exchange is not so direct, being usually conducted through the agency of a middleman, or merchant, although it is much more rapid. But, in whatever manner the system of exchange is carried on, whether the value of the articles to be exchanged is measured by barter or by a price in money, each of the exchangers derives a benefit, because each obtains a supply of necessities by parting with a store of which he had little or no need.

While the act of exchanging is performed by no other living creature, men in all grades of society either barter or buy and sell. No uncivilized race, even in Africa, has ever found without a strong desire to exchange the natural products of their country for the manufactured article possessed by the traveller. As men advanced in social condition and riches, they became exchangers on larger scale. Each producer found it more convenient and more agreeable to adopt some fixed form of employment or production, and to exchange the product of his labour not directly, but through other persons.

In this improved condition of life, the producer of articles became a manufacturer, while the exchanger became a trader or middleman. For still greater convenience, the wholesale merchant purchased large quantities of goods from the manufacturers or producers, while the retail dealers, having been supplied in lesser quantities by the wholesale merchants, sold smaller supplies of goods to the consumers, and between these another dealer sometimes intervened, and thus the transfer of useful articles from the workshop of the producer to the home of the consumer passed, and still passes, through several hands. In this passage from hand to hand, each seller, or middleman, obtains a certain profit, for which the consumer has to pay. It is obvious therefore, that the fewer hands through which a necessary article has to pass, the better it is for the consumer.

But a manufacturer finds it more profitable to sell his goods in large, rather than in small quantities. Were he compelled to sell by retail, he could manufacture in small quantities only, and being limited in his rate of production, and therefore in his sales, he would be obliged, in order to pay his way, to obtain larger profits. Thus, generally, it is much better for all concerned that the manufacturer should sell only in large quantities to wholesale merchants, or middlemen, who must, of course, make a profit out of their work as exchangers.

11. IMPORTERS AND EXPORTERS.

Stores of minerals, plentiful supplies of water, fertile soils, extensive forests, seas teeming with fish, and an abundance of animal life, constitute the chief natural resources of the world. Very few lands are favoured by the presence of all these resources, yet most countries possess some of them, and when the labour of man is brought to bear upon these gifts of nature, vast supplies of wealth are produced, which usually more than provide for the requirements of the countries themselves.

The surplus productions of one region can, therefore, be exchanged for those of another, and in this way the people of different countries become importers and exporters. Just think what good things we should be deprived of, if we were unable to exchange our productions for those of distant lands! What would our meals be like without tea, coffee, cocoa, and sugar? Oranges, bananas, figs, and dates would not be found upon our sideboards for dessert. Indeed, many of the present luxuries of life would be missing from our homes. Moreover, we should be entirely at a loss for our supplies of cotton, tropical grains, wines, and fancy goods.

This utility of exchange, or the interchange of productions as it is often termed, being everywhere recognized, each nation devotes its full energies to the production of those articles for which it has special natural advantages. Great Britain, for instance, contains vast supplies of coal and iron, together with an abundant water supply, and these stores of wealth enable us to manufacture goods more cheaply than countries deficient in these natural products. Hence, we are able to offer our manufactures in return for foreign produce. — We can see this exchange of commodities exhibited on a small scale even in our own midst, for, when a farmer produces on his land more than his own family can consume in the form of corn, meat, and dairy produce, he visits the neighbouring towns, and there exchanges his surplus supplies for the produce of the town, in the shape of clothing, cutlery, harness, farming implements, etc., using money, of course, as a medium of exchange.

The productions brought into a country are termed its imports, while those sent out are known as exports. In the long run, the imports and exports of a country tend to balance each other. — Importation and exportation are carried on by traders or merchants, who bring in or send out goods in the hope of making a profit. An importer will bring into his own land only the articles which, he believes, he can sell at a profit. Similarly, an exporter will only send to foreign lands those commodities which are in request there, and which will yield a profit equal to or greater than that which he can gain at home. — The exceptional case, known as "dumping", occurs when a manufacturer, having exhausted his home-markets and his regular customers abroad, finds himself with a large surplus stock, which he ships to other countries at a very low price, which is perhaps less than the cost of production. In this way he disposes of all his stock, is on the whole in pocket, and may have laid the bait for a fresh catch.

If a trader can buy goods at home as cheaply as in a foreign land, he will not, of course, import the foreign produce; and if a manufacturer can sell all his wares at home, he likewise will not trouble to send them abroad. The exchange of productions is carried on, therefore, primarily for profit, but it

finally results in the world's population having a common enjoyment of the necessities and luxuries of life.

This great system of international exchange of productions has called into existence vast fleets of merchant vessels, which scour the oceans, bearing from land to land the varied products of different races and climates.

12. BUSINESS AT THE LONDON CUSTOM HOUSE.

The collection of "Customs" or "Duties" is one of great antiquity, for in the Bible we read of Matthew "sitting at the Receipt of Custom". — In England in the old days this system of collection of the "King's Toll" by "Customers", as they were called, was subject to much fraud, both King and merchant being cheated.

The present system dates from the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when the first London Custom House was built, which was destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666. Other buildings were subsequently erected. The present Custom House, in Lower Thames Street, was opened for public business in 1817, having been built at a cost £ 165,000.— The river front of the Custom House is about one-eleventh of a mile in length, and the building is divided into many offices and rooms for the transaction of the business connected with collection of customs. The central staircase leads to the "Long Room", around the whole extent of which are ranged the desks of the clerks, whose duty it is to wait "at the receipt of custom". All the duties payable on goods imported into London are received here, and the accounts of the entire Custom revenues of the kingdom are kept in this building. — Tea, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, wines and spirits, contribute the greater portion of the Custom revenue, but there are a few other articles subject to duty. Since the days of Sir Robert Peel the number of articles dutiable has been reduced from over one thousand to about a score, and this has greatly simplified the work of the Custom House.

Duties are paid when the articles are taken out of the bonded warehouse, in which they are kept until a sale is found for them. As long as the goods remain in the warehouse, they are said to be "in bond". When the goods are taken out after duty has been paid, they are spoken of as being "cleared", that is to say, they are clear or free of duty. — Perhaps the most wonderful sight to be seen at the Custom House is that on the eve of the Budget of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, when rumours are afloat as to the different articles which will suffer in the matter of increased taxation. The various trades affected, or likely to be affected, pay duty on enormous quantities of goods at such a time, in the hope of getting the benefit of avoiding the extra duty.

13. WHAT IS MEANT BY A PATENT.

In old times "letters patent" were granted by the king to certain persons when he gave them license to do certain things. These "letters patent" were open letters, not sealed up, but "exposed to view with the great seal at the bottom and were addressed by the King to his subjects at large", so that all might know what was contained in them. There are many of these "letters patent" preserved in the Patent Rolls among the State Papers in the Public Record Office in London, some of which date back for centuries.

Letters patent were used when the King granted to certain persons the sole right to make or deal in certain articles of trade, and later on they were used for protecting the interest a person had in an invention, and this is what the words very often mean when you see "letters patent" at the present day.

If a person thinks of some new thing that would be useful to the public, or of some new way of making a thing already in use to be more useful, he naturally expects to get some profit out of it, in return for all the time and attention he has given to thinking out the idea, or in making models of the article. — The law comes to his aid and prevents another person from taking that profit away from him, if he will adopt the precaution of obtaining these "letters patent" or, in other words, of taking out a patent.

In the same way an author who writes a book has what is called the copyright of the book, which means that no one else can make and sell copies of it but himself for a certain number of years, unless he sells to someone else the right to do so. — In this case, however, the author of a book is given the copyright by the law of the land, without the payment of any fee. The person who wishes to get a patent for an invention has to prove that it is a new thing, and that nothing like it has been patented before. The "letters patent" for such things are still granted by the Crown, through public officials called Commissioners, and there is a branch of the Government called the Patent Office, where there is kept a register, or list, of all patents that have ever been granted.

When a patent for an invention is applied for, the inventor must send in a description of the article, with drawings of it, if necessary, so that the Examiners at the Patent Office may be able to see exactly what the article is like, what it is intended to do, and whether somebody else has claimed and obtained a patent for it during the preceding fifty years.

If the inventor is anxious to prevent anyone else getting before him with the same idea, or the same article, and has not time to describe fully the article, he is allowed to give a short description of it, and upon this he may be granted protection for 6 months. When he has done this and paid a fee of one pound, he knows at least that no one else can come in to patent the same thing during the 6 months, and in that time he may find out whether it is worth while to pay more fees for the patent. Later on, he pays a further fee of three pounds plus the so called "sealing fee". During the next 16 years, upon his paying renewal fees after the fourth year, he has the sole right of making the article. The renewal fees rise from 5 pounds for the 5th year to 16 pounds for the 16th year.

In 1923 the Patent Office sealed 17,073 patents, registered 7,794 trade-marks and 17,807 designs, and made a profit of close on £ 82,000.

14. TRADE MARKS.

When a manufacturer has gained a reputation for producing good and reliable wares, his customers can always depend upon his productions being satisfactory, and he usually stamps his goods with his name or some other mark, so that they can be easily distinguished from those of other manufacturers by intending purchasers. — These special markings, found on articles of all kinds,

are known as trade marks. — The practice of using them had its origin in the use of signs which were formerly affixed to traders' shops in the middle ages. — Eventually, the devices borne upon the signs were also impressed upon the goods themselves, and served to distinguish the wares of different traders. — All trade marks are now registered or recorded as belonging to particular individuals, and any infringement upon others' trade marks punishable by law. — Many of the chief trading countries of the world have now entered into an agreement whereby a trade mark registered in one country is also protected against infringement in all others. — By the present English law, a trade mark should be plain and simple and easily distinguished from others. — It can consist of the name or written signature of a person or firm printed or woven or stamped upon the goods; or it may be a distinctive device, mark, brand, or label, or an invented word with no special meaning. — It must not be a geographical name, and it must have no reference to the character or quality of the goods. —

Trade marks may be seen on every hand as we pass to and fro in our daily occupations. — They stare at us from the advertisements at our railway stations; our great hoardings display them in all designs and colours; and our magazines and papers simply abound in them. —

15. LETTER WRITING.

Letters are written in order to carry on, at a distance, a substitute for conversation. Letters may be familiar or distant, jocular or dignified according to the relations between the writer and the person addressed.

Letters of friendship should be simple and natural. Letters of courtesy include invitations, acceptances, acknowledgments, letters of congratulation, of condolence, of introduction, and of recommendation. — Public letters embrace communications to newspapers regarding public affairs. — They are also called open letters.

Business letters include all correspondence relating to business matters. The chief characteristics of a good business letter are: — 1) absolute accuracy and clearness as to the facts, figures, or terms referred to; — 2) brevity, so far as this may be retained along with clearness of meaning; and — 3) courtesy, which is at all times advisable.

A letter is usually divided into parts, thus:

- (1) the heading, which contains the address of the writer or his firm, followed by the date.
- (2) the address, which includes the name and address of the person or firm to whom the letter is written.
- (3) the salutation, or phrase with which the letter commences, e.g. "Dear Sir", "Gentlemen", etc.
- (4) the body of the letter, that is to say, the part dealing with the subject-matter of the communication. —
- (5) the complimentary close, which in business letters is usually "Yours truly (faithfully, etc.)."
- (6) the signature, which is perhaps, the most important part of all, since without it all the rest would be of little or no value.

Every writer should remember the fact that any letter he sends forth to the world is his personal representative. A neat, attractive appearance is an advantage; a careless, slovenly exterior repels immediately. Letters have exactly the same effects. Smudges, hasty penmanship or inaccurate typing, note-paper disfigured with awkward creases, mistakes in the forms of salutation or close, poor spacing of the items of the address, and the like, all win disfavour. One should cultivate habits of correct usage, in these particulars, right from the beginning.

16. THE POST OFFICE.

The chief work of the Post Office is the receiving and distributing of letters, post-cards, newspapers, and packets. But this is not all. It controls the telegraphs and telephones, and acts as a kind of bank, by means of which people of small means can save their money, or send money to all parts without posting the actual coins.

No one may deliver letters or telegrams, or carry on any business of a Post Office without a licence; no one may even sell stamps, because such business is a Government monopoly. All Governments claim control of the postal and telegraph services, because of the secret and confidential messages which pass through them. In times of peace and security the public can trust private messages to a State Department with more confidence than they could to a private person or company; and in times of war and insecurity it is only right that the State should have the sole control, including the means of intercepting treasonable letters and dispatches, and any other messages intended to be detrimental to the country's interests.

The postal system in England was first set up in the reign of James I, and was improved in the reigns of Charles II. But it was not so profitable as it might have been. Some people had the right of sending letters and parcels free of cost, and this right was abused. Also letters were not prepaid, so that, if the persons addressed refused to accept the letters, there was a loss. Then came the change of 1840, when the penny post was established, for which credit was due to Sir Rowland Hill. Free postage was done away with, and payment for letters had to be made beforehand. It is curious to think that many people were of opinion that the introduction of a cheap post would be a great monetary loss, whereas it has been a great success.

Pillar boxes were first used in 1855. The Post Office Savings Bank was opened in 1861. The telegraphs were established in 1870. Post cards were issued in the same year, postal orders in 1881, while in 1883 we had our first parcel post.

The collection and the distribution of letters have been made as perfect as possible. In small country places there is no need for more than one collection, and one delivery of letters a day. In the larger towns there are several, and in London one delivery of letters follows another so closely that the service is almost continuous. Postmen have their regular rounds for each purpose, while practice in sorting secures the quick dispatch of a letter from the central office to the office from which delivery is made. — Besides the ordinary business mentioned above, the post office sells National Insurance stamps on behalf of the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Labour. It pays also old

age pensions, army and navy separation allowances and pensions, and sells National Savings stamps and certificates.

The work of the post office is therefore very important, very laborious, very complex; and a great army of workers is needed, as well as a vast clerical staff. The workers alone number at least 200,000 and there is employment for about 40,000 women.

As the penny post had proved a great success, people began to think that the post Office might manage equally well if they got all the wires into their own hands. The Government bought up the various companies in 1868, and since 1870 the sending of telegrams is a Government monopoly. The first cable was laid between Dover and Calais in 1851, and Europe and America were joined in 1866. Since the invention and perfection of the "wireless" a scheme has been undertaken to establish a system of Empire wireless communication. The chief self-governing Dominions have inaugurated their own systems within their own boundaries.

Air Mail Services have in recent years provided the means of sending letters abroad much more quickly than by ordinary post, and at a very much cheaper rate than by telegram. Air parcels up to 11 lb. are accepted for delivery to the Continent.

17. CARAVANS, CANALS, RAILWAYS, AND MOTOR VANS.

The inland transport of merchandise is carried on by caravan, canals, railways, and motor vans. Caravans sometimes number 1,000 camels, and not infrequently as many as 2,000 or more, each camel's burden often weighing 7 or 8 hundredweights, and the number of miles covered in a day amounting to 18 or 20, or more. In Eastern Equatorial Africa the usual native method of internal communication is by means of caravans of porters, each native carrying a load on his head, while in Abyssinia the load is carried on sticks resting on the shoulders of 2 men walking one behind the other.

Canals are artificial channels of water. They are employed as means of transport where rivers are not sufficiently level, straight or deep to admit of navigation by barges. As they cannot compete with railways or coasting vessels, etc., in the matter of speed, they have lost much of the traffic they once had, but even now they must have an important place, as, by reason of their cheapness, compared with the cost of transport by railway, they are once again growing in favour. In the United Kingdom there are more than 4,600 miles of inland navigation of this character, including both canals and canalized rivers, nearly 1,200 of which are under the control of the railways. The annual traffic is probably not far short of 40,000,000 tons. — Chief among the canals of Great-Britain are the Shrophire Union (202 miles), and the Grand Junction (189 miles).

Abroad we have the famous Suez Canal, (close upon 100 miles) and the Panama Canal (50 miles long) finished in 1913. — One of the largest canals in Europe is to be found in Holland; it extends from the German Ocean to the River Y at Amsterdam. The United States of America possesses 4,000 miles of canals, the chief bring the Erie (363 miles long).

A third means of transit and transport is railways. The great railway system of England dates from 1830, when the Liverpool and Manchester line

was opened. Since that time the system has developed by leaps and bounds. On 1st January, 1923, the various railways of Great Britain were amalgamated into 4 main groups. — The first of these, in point of mileage, is the London, Midland and Scottish Railway, with 7,464 miles. — The second is the London and North Eastern Railway (6,464 miles), the third, the Great Western Railway (3,765 miles), and the fourth the Southern Railway (2,129 miles). The total track mileage of these 4 systems is about 37,000 miles without sidings, and 52,000 miles with sidings.

In recent years motor transport has increased enormously. Regular services of motor wagons are maintained between London and the chief towns in the provinces. One great advantage of motor transport is that goods carried by this means need not be handled more than twice — at the beginning and at the end of the journey. Another advantage is that there is, on the average, a quicker delivery than by rail.

18. HOW SHIPS ASSIST TRADE AND COMMERCE.

In all ages of the world, water has been a great highway. — The earliest commerce was of an inland nature, for the rivers provided means of carrying goods from one part of a country to another. — This method of carriage, though slow, is cheap, and is still much used for heavy goods. The barges convey a great quantity of pottery along the canals of central England. On the waters of the Nile, the Mississippi and other large rivers, there is a regular traffic carried on by means of river steamers. —

In very early times, too, commercial nations sprang up along the coasts of inland seas. — The best example was afforded by the people of Tyre and Sidon, on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean Sea. — They became great sailors; their ships were large and ventured out to sea. — In the Bible, we read of King Solomon, whose navy went with the ships of the King of Tyre and brought back gold, silver, ivory, apes, and peacocks. — But many long years passed by before sailors would sail into the broad ocean, far away from land. — Ships crept along the coast, in sight of the land, carrying their goods from one place to another on the same coast. —

Whether pirates in search of plunder, or merchant in quest of trade were the first to cross the ocean, we cannot say. — The Dutch were among the first of the nations of to-day to find employment for their men on the sea, and they became the carriers of the world. — As nations grow, the population becomes so large that food must be sought in other countries, and a market must be found for what is not wanted at home. — In Great Britain, we have coal and iron, but we have no tea, coffee, sugar, or rice. If we want these things, we must go to other countries for them. — This cannot be done without ships. — Some people are fitted for one thing, and some for another. The British are great manufacturers. — But there is no cotton in this country, and very little wool or silk to keep mills going. — Our ships bring us raw cotton from Australia, New Zealand, and Cape Colony; and silk from the countries of Southern Europe. — These materials are made into cloth and the manufactured articles sent to every part of the world. —

Enough food is not grown in this country to maintain the people. So ships go to America for corn and meat; to India and China for tea; and to the West

Indies for sugar. In addition we import live cattle, rice, sago, bacon, eggs, and numerous other articles of food. — Of all the articles brought into this country by ships, raw cotton, wheat, wool, butter, bacon and hams, and timber are the chief in order of value. — The principal exports in a similar order are manufactured cotton, woollen manufactures, iron and steel goods, coal and machinery. —

Now this trade and commerce is carried on by means of all kinds of ships. The improvement in shipping has enabled voyages to be made quickly, and each year the journeys between countries occupy less time. During the last 40 years, the time taken in a passage to America has decreased from 9 to 5, whilst the ships are so much larger that they possess 4 or 5 times the carrying power. — This great increase in size and speed must have great value in trade. — In these days of screw steamers, the arrival of goods may be timed almost to an hour.

19. ENGLISH COMMERCIAL NAVY.

Strictly speaking, a ship is a vessel with three masts, intended for navigating the ocean. In these days, however, "ship" is a comprehensive term, and includes all great boats which are designed for long voyages. The first ship, properly so called, in the English navy, was the **Great Harry**, built in the reign of Henry VIII, and the first three-decker was built in England in 1637. The first steamer sailed on a Scottish lake in 1788.

A hundred years ago the tonnage of the steamboats of all kinds, registered in the United Kingdom, amounted to less than 1,000 tons. This was increased to 8,000 tons by 1820. At the opening of this century British shipowners possessed 8,107 steamers, representing thirteen million gross tons; and, by 1924, the number of vessels had increased to 11,000, representing a gross tonnage of nearly 22,000,000.

The principal qualities of a ship are buoyancy, stability, capacity, strength, and movability, though it is impossible for any one ship to possess the maximum of all these, one to some extent neutralizing another. Ships are constructed for different classes of trade — passenger, cattle, timber, corn, and so on, the purpose for which they are to be used being clearly understood by the designers before they set to work upon the plan.

In this connection it is necessary that we should understand what is meant by the various terms commonly employed. In the first place, the displacement of a vessel means the number of tons of water which she displaces, this being equal to her own weight. It will be readily understood from this that "load" displacement and "light" displacement are respectively the displacements with the cargo and without it, and that burden is the difference between the two. Displacement and burden are expressed in tons, a ton of water measuring about 35 cubic feet, but the registered tonnage of a vessel is expressed in tons of 100 cubic feet, and this is found by dividing the internal capacity of the ship by two.

In order that a ship be classed as British, it must be owned by a British subject, or by corporate bodies having their principal place of business in the United Kingdom or some British possession. The immense cost of ships in these days, owing to their size and equipment, makes it necessary that they

should be insured by the underwriters; but before this is done the ships must be inspected and surveyed by one of Lloyd's surveyors.

Before a ship can set out on a voyage a captain must be selected, also a mate, a purser, engineers, crew, and so on. The first-mentioned is responsible for the safety of the ship; he must be acquainted with the science of navigation; he must be familiar with the use of the compass, the sextant, which is an instrument for measuring the longitude, and the log, and instrument for measuring the rate at which the vessel moves through the water in a given space of time. He must be provided with accurate charts of the seas.

The cargo of the ship is called freight. A written account of the goods is made out and signed by the master of the vessel; this is termed a bill of lading.

When a ship enters a harbour certain charges have to be met. There are, first of all, the harbour dues, which are charges to which a ship or its cargo is liable when in harbour, and there may be dock charges, which are the rates or dues levied for berthing ships in docks.

20. PORTS AND THEIR TRADE.

Our English work could not be carried on without the supply of goods from foreign countries. — We have to buy wool for the mills of Yorkshire, cotton for the mills of Lancashire, sugar and tobacco for the works of Bristol, and foodstuffs for the thousands of people in all our large towns, besides hundreds of other things too numerous to mention.

All ports must have roomy harbours, placed where they have good shelter from the stormy seas. All our largest ports, therefore, are built on the mouths of rivers, a little way from the sea.

The cotton trade of Lancashire is the most important in the country; so Liverpool and Manchester, which are now joined by a ship canal, bring in the raw cotton and send out calico. — Hull is the nearest port to the great woollen centres of Yorkshire, to the cutlery town of Sheffield, and to the stocking and lace centres of Leicester and Nottingham. Not only is Hull busy with the trade of these places, but butter, cheese, bacon, and cattle are landed there from the farms of Denmark, which is on the opposite side of the North sea. —

Bristol became great when America was discovered. Bristol still keeps the trade, which it got at that time, in sugar and tobacco.

Cardiff, in South Wales, has more coal carried out of its harbour than any other port in the world. — Swansea has a large trade in copper ore. — London is the greatest port in the world, but its trade is with goods brought into the country. — It is not near any large manufacturing district, and consequently, in the amount of its exports, it is far behind Liverpool. — Newcastle is a busy port, which sends out the coal of its neighbouring coal-field.

Southampton is the largest seaport on the south coast, and does much trade with France and the countries of South Europe.

21. MANCHESTER SHIP-CANAL.

Manchester Ship-Canal is an artificial waterway for conveying ships to this town. — Manchester had long been connected with Liverpool by a railway. But the trade of Manchester was injured by the high railway rates

and by the heavy charges at the Liverpool docks. — There was an old canal from the Mersey to Manchester, which could be navigated only on barges carrying 50 tons. — So a ship-canal was considered necessary to the prosperity of the city.

The canal was commenced in November 1887. Total length, $35\frac{1}{2}$ miles. — A wide and deep canal, nearly straight, has thus been substituted for winding rivers, shallow, narrow, and almost useless.

The canal is virtually one long dock. — At various points wharves and warehouses have been erected for various manufacturing works. — Along the canal, a large trade is carried on not only in raw cotton and piece goods, but in chemicals, Staffordshire potteries, coal from Yorkshire and Lancashire, petroleum, cold-air meat stores, etc. At Manchester itself the docks cover an area of 104 acres, and there is quay space of 152 acres, having over 5 miles of frontage to the docks.

Two railway companies — the London and North-Western, and the Lancashire and Yorkshire — have made branch lines, with sidings, to the canal docks. — There are several smaller inland canals in direct communication with these docks. —

The minimum depth of the canal is 26 feet. — The lock sills are placed two feet lower, to allow of the canal being deepened if necessary. — The minimum width at the bottom is 120 feet, so that large vessels can pass each other at any point. — Three entrance locks have been provided at Eastham. — These locks maintain the water-level in the canal to that of high tide. —

The construction of the canal, including parliamentary expenses, purchase of land, and all contingent charges, cost over £ 15,000,000.—

The traffic on the canal increased from 925,659 tons in 1894 to 2,778,108 tons in 1899. — So it nearly trebled itself in 5 years.

Before the construction of the canal large works had left Manchester and transferred themselves to other ports, such as Glasgow, where the cost of inland carriage was saved. — All this has now ceased. New industries have been started at Manchester and along the canal route; deserted warehouses and mills have been reoccupied; 10,000 new houses have been built for the housing of workmen required to meet the increased trade. —

22. LONDON GILDS AND COMPANIES.

Besides merchants, there were, in every town, the hardly less important craftsmen, or skilled artists and artisans, and their affairs, to be regulated by the municipal authorities. — All workers, in whatever industry, were required to belong to the "gild" or association of their trade. — No one might open a shop, or set up as a dealer, merely at his own risk. The gilds regulated the number of apprentices taken, the kind and quality of the work turned out, the affairs of the poor or needy members, and the care of orphans and the aged. — We have still the remains of these ancient trades-gilds in every town; and in London at the yearly pageant on Lord Mayor's Day we hear their names, and see some of them represented in the procession. — The famous old gilds of Mercers, Grocers, Drapers, and Fishmongers, the Goldsmiths and Stationers, are represented to-day by immensely wealthy companies, whose generous

benefactions to schools make many of their names familiar; and in the case of the stationers, by their one monopoly in our times — the right of stamping all almanacs published. — The "hallmark" that we find on gold and silver articles is the modern equivalent for the old gild guarantee of purity. — In mediaeval times, each gild kept its members very much together in one street; and in the hall of the members were held the gatherings to regulate its affairs — thus copying the great central authority, the mayor and aldermen, whose hall in London is known as the **Guildhall**. — It was to the control of the gilds that the early development of English trade and industry was largely due. Due apprenticeship was exacted of all learners; a certain standard of excellence in workmanship and of purity of material was demanded; honesty in measuring and weighing was required of every dealer, and the gild saw that the regulations were kept. The "aldermen" had the duty of examining the measures and the weights used, of testing materials, and of overseeing the methods of employing labour. We have a reminder of this control and the reliance that might be placed upon the guarantee of the responsible body, in the little impress of the lion, known as the "hall-mark", on silver goods to-day. — The word "hall-mark" is the stamp or the chosen device of the gild, kept in its **Hall**.

At the present day the London Companies (Gilds) are 78 in number, and of them the 12 greatest enjoy incomes which range from 11,000 to £ 111,000 a year. — But on the other hand, while 15 of them have a yearly income of more than £ 10,000 there is more than one of them which has an annual income of only £ 20 or less. — The business of the Companies, in these modern days when one does not need to be a freeman to practise a trade or set up a shop in London, is now chiefly ceremonial. In their magnificent halls, among which are some of the most interesting houses in the city, splendid dinners and entertainments are given either by the liverymen to themselves, or to some great man, whom the city delights to honour.

The City Companies do much good work. They have large sums of money in trust, with which they keep up many charitable institutions in different parts of London. They contribute most generously out of their private funds to various benevolent objects. Many great schools are managed and supported by them, and nearly all of them show great interest in promoting technical instruction in their special trade or manufacture.

The richest of these companies is that of the Mercers, which has a yearly income of £ 111,000.— The list of the members of the Merchant Taylors (another of these companies) contains the name of almost every English King, and a proportionate sprinkling of dukes and other noblemen.

23. THE RISE OF THE FACTORY SYSTEM.

To carry on any industry, whether large or small, certain things are needed; there must, first, be raw material to work on, second tools or machines to work with, and third, a site or shelter in which to labour. These three things are known as Capital, and the person who owns them is called a Capitalist. But there must also be people to do the work, and the labour involved is of two kinds; some one must buy the raw material and must sell the finished goods; secondly, some one must set the tools or machines to work.

upon the raw material and produce the thing needed. We generally speak only of the person who does the latter as the labourer, though in truth it is all work of an important kind. Great skill and brain-work is involved in judging good wool, leather, etc. in its rough state.

In the simplest stage of manufacture the hand-worker is his own Capitalist. He procures his own material, he uses his own simple tools or machines, for they too are inexpensive and small. He does the work in the shelter of his own home, or in some field, garden or other site near by. He takes the finished thing to market, or sells it to a dealer. Thus Capital and Labour were united in the same people. — Often, however, the small home-worker could not procure raw material, since it had all been bought up by bigger men. Then he had to take the material of an employer, and with his own tools and in his own home, work upon it; the employer paid him a wage by the piece and sold the finished goods. This was how many and perhaps most of English manufactures were carried on in the 17th and 18th centuries. — Capital and Labour were partially divided, for the labourer owned part of the capital and did the manual part of the work, and the employer owned the rest of the capital and did the work of buying and selling. Sometimes indeed — the master built a shed or workshop, bought the tools or machines, and employed labourers to work at a weekly wage. The employer then owned all the capital. The labourer did all the manual work. Capital and Labour were then divided. But, until the big machines came in, the man who did piece-work or the man in the small factory could always hope by thrift and forethought to save money and set up on his own account. — When the big machines came in, the small man was unable, with all his thrift, save or borrow enough money to buy them. He, therefore, remained poor, and became for a time a man without hope. Besides the big machines, another force divided the capitalists and the workers into two classes. As trade grew, and the goods were sold in more distant markets, the work of buying raw materials and selling finished goods became more difficult, and the danger of not selling them far greater than before. The employer must, therefore, be a man with credit at the bank or with money which he could afford to lose. Some of the new employers, therefore, were not by origin manufacturers, but traders and merchants with capital saved.

The earliest factories in the modern sense of the word were worked by horse- or water-power. The early water-mills for carding and spinning were placed in the valleys of the Pennines and other hills, where rapid streams from the mountains turned the machinery. When Watt's rotary steam-engine was introduced in 1782 it became possible to work the machines by steam. Coal was now needed rather than water to work the machines and the cotton-mills moved to the coal-fields of South Lancashire, while other mills for spinning yarn for the woollen industry were growing up in Yorkshire. During the early years of the 19th century many cottagers, copyholders, and little freeholders, ruined by agricultural changes, went north and so the population of Lancashire grew, but wages fell. — The number of "hands" grew to such a degree that very large numbers would have starved but for poor relief.

24. FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

In times gone by, the making of many things now in daily use was almost everywhere carried on by hand; the manufacture of linen and lace, for example, began with the spinning wheel and the pillow and bobbins in the humble cottage, and so with a great many other articles. The great lucifer match factories have sprung from the pedlar's cut sticks dipped in brimstone, with which, and the tinder box, our grandmothers used to light their rush-light candles by night and their fires by day.

When machines were made to do the work that was formerly done by hand, factories were built in which the machines could be worked. These factories consist of several large workshops, in each of which some little part of an article is made, and by the time it gets through the last of these workshops, the article is made and is ready for sale.

The factories from which the very smallest of articles come are often very large, and employ several thousands of workpeople. In the North of England, and especially in Lancashire and Yorkshire, nearly every one you meet is employed in a factory, or cotton mill, and the streets of the towns are crowded morning, night and at meal times, by people going to and from the factories. The employment of so many men and women in one factory makes it impossible for the employer to know every one of those in his employ, and so rules are drawn up for the whole of the workpeople or "hands", as they are sometimes called.

These rules refer to hours of labour, mealtimes, wages, and many other things, and the workpeople have to obey them. The factories have also to work by rules laid down by Acts of Parliament, called the Factory Acts, which are drawn up to prevent accidents and anything which might injure the health of the workpeople. Inspectors are sent round by the Government to visit the factories and see that the rules are obeyed.

If the workpeople in a factory refuse to go to work for some reason, it is called a "strike", and if the employer closes the factory, because his workmen will not accept a reduction in wages or through some other dispute, it is called a "lock-out". During a strike employer will try to find others to take the place of those who are on strike, while the latter will do all they can to persuade people not to take their place, and will appoint "pickets", or watchers, to walk up and down outside the works for that purpose. — If the strike is a very serious one, and affects large numbers of people and several factories in the same trade, the workpeople sometimes appoint some of their number to meet the employers, to see if some way cannot be found to settle the dispute, and if they cannot agree, some well-known public man is often called in to decide between them.

Most of the workers in the manufacturing districts now band themselves together into an association, called a trade union, the members of which pay something into a fund for helping those who are sick or go out on strike. While a strike lasts, the trade union gives what is called strike pay to those on strike, and with this help they are able to hold out much longer than they would otherwise be able to do. Strikes are always a great misfortune, and

when they happen among those who work on railwas, or in the coal mines, their effects are felt by thousands of persons besides the strikers and their families.

25. CHIEF MANUFACTURING COUNTRIES.

The great manufacturing countries of the world are the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France; lands blessed with temperate climates and frequent small changes of temperature, where man is most energetic and possesses the strength and desire to work and to achieve. Massive production, the creation of steam-power and railways, is characteristic of all four countries; but each shows distinctive features in its manufactures. The British manufacturer has a high reputation for fair dealing, and for goods of superior quality and durability. Britain had the advantage of an early start, and is conservative in adopting new methods; but the British characteristics of firm will, self-determination, thoroughness, fidelity, and love of freedom are highly suited to capitalistic and massive production of goods of solid comfort and strength. France has been the meeting-place of the best energy of the North with the best culture of the South, and the artistic sense is strong in her artisans. She specializes in textile and metallic work that call for individual taste and thought as regards form, arrangement, and colour. With increased home supplies of coal and iron, she is recovering from her terrible losses during the war. Germany has been the leader in the application of science to massive production; no country, as yet, can compare with her in the organized work of detail, by which epoch-making thoughts are brought to bear on practice in such a way as to make an epoch industry. She is pre-eminent in the chemical and dyestuff industry, her large supplies of potash and other salts and the by-products of her coking-ovens together with scientific labour giving her the advantage. German skill, energy, and organizing power will help her to retain her leading position. Manufacturing methods in the United States make for the production of business plant and of products for immediate consumption in endless variety of standardized forms. The varied immigrant peoples from many types of environment, the huge home supplies of raw material, the great capital, and the organizing powers of American directors are prime factors assuring the United States of a still great future. In the lands of the Far East, lands of patient races, goods are manufactured by hand with a care and skill which gives them great beauty and desirability. China is noted for its silks, embroidery, and pottery; Japan for beautiful textiles and pictures, lacquer, pottery, and bric-à-brac; India for finely carved ivory, rich inlays, brass-work, and fine textiles. Western nations, less idealistic and less patient, show survivals of domestic manufactures in certain sparsely populated regions; but specialization and massive production tend to kill craftsmanship and keen interest in the finished product. Individuality is the essence of art — a beautiful thing bears the impress of its maker's personality. Nations must decide where to draw the line between mechanical reproduction and the production of original artistic work by the artisans. The great inventions have given the West its undisputed material primacy, and there is evidence that, with a mastery of the science of living things, western civilization will seek the beautiful and the ideal more and more.

26. THE IRON INDUSTRIES.

The iron industry is most largely developed in the leading commercial and manufacturing countries. The United States easily leads all other countries in its great and varied iron manufactures, its Steel Corporation controlling more works than any other world combine. Pittsburg, Birmingham, Newcastle, Wheeling, and South Bethlehem on the Appalachian coal-field, work the Appalachian and Lake Superior ores; and Cleveland, Buffalo, and Gary are famous lake-side iron centres. Chicago and Milwaukee manufacture agricultural machinery; Worcester, textile machinery; Philadelphia, Cleveland, and Cincinnati, machine tools; Milwaukee, Pittsburg, Philadelphia, New York, and Schenectady, engines and electrical machinery; and Philadelphia, Chicago, Pittsburg, and St. Louis, locomotives. Shipbuilding yards are numerous at the Atlantic, Lake and Pacific ports, America now being second to Britain in shipping tonnage. The automobile industry is the greatest in the world, and has Detroit as its leading centre. Inexhaustible supplies of water-power at Niagara, in New England, and along coast ranges of the Pacific, have given great importance to electrical industries, and there is a great production of electrical appliances and machinery.

The British iron industry now ranks second in world production, and is noted for the excellence of its products, and its premier position in shipbuilding. Specialization is a feature of the industry. Sheffield specializes in cutlery, edged and machine tools, and ferro-alloys; the Midlands in articles which require a good deal of skill in making, such as bicycles, chains, general and domestic hardware, jewellery, and brass goods; and South Wales in tin-plate and galvanized iron sheets. The world's best textile machinery is manufactured in several of the leading textile towns of Yorkshire and Lancashire; while agricultural machinery of high repute is made in many of the market centres of the agricultural East. The motor-car industry, centred at Coventry, Birmingham, and London, is on a large scale, but meets with severe competition from the United States and France. In shipbuilding, the Clyde and north-east parts and Belfast have the greatest shipyards in the world, and the greatest output. Locomotives and rolling-stock are built for home and export purposes at the great railway workshops of the large companies (Crewe, Swindon, Derby, and Darlington), and by the large engineering companies, and electrical goods are largely exported.

In Germany, the iron industry is well developed, and is steadily progressing, but the loss of coal and iron supplies from the Luxemburg-Lorraine-Saar areas seriously affects the output. Dusseldorf, Essen, Ruhrort, Duisburg, Dortmund, Gelsenkirchen, Remscheid, Solingen, etc., are the chief centres of the Ruhr region. Each has some special branch of engineering, Essen and Dusseldorf being the best known heavy engineering centres. Solingen and Tuttlingen are noted for cutlery; Zwickau and Chemnitz for textile machinery; Crefeld and Frankfurt for ferro-alloys; and Magdeburg and Berlin for electrical goods. The Great German Steel Combine controls practically the entire steel business. German shipbuilding declined greatly after the War, but has recently resumed importance. The chief yards are at Stettin, Kiel, Hamburg, etc.

France now rivals Germany and ranks second to the United States as a potential iron-producing country, and may become the second in actual production. She depends on Ruhr coal for her supplies of coke, and her chief iron works are in Lorraine, Le Creusot, St. Etienne, and Caen. In the motor car industry, centred at Paris, Lyons, and St. Etienne, a foremost place has been gained. Belgium has important iron industries at Mons, and Liege.

27. THE BLACK COUNTRY.

The first great English centre of the smelting industry was the South Staffordshire coalfield. Here large towns sprang up, nearly all of which were engaged in the iron trade. Birmingham in the south-east of the district led the way, to be quickly followed by Wolverhampton, Walsall, West Bromwich, Wednesbury, Dudley, and Stourbridge. This important district has long been known by the name of "The Black Country". — Years ago it may have deserved this name, for then there were so many blast furnaces and ironworks that the air for miles around was filled with smoke and smuts. — Day after day, and night after night, the tall blast furnaces sent out dense columns of smoke, and at night a ruddy glow could be seen for miles around, caused by the gases which were being consumed at the tops of the furnaces. — But things have changed. The tops of the blast furnaces are now kept closed, and the burning gases which formerly cast a glare over the country-side are now turned aside by means of large pipes, and used in driving the blowing-engines. Very little smoke is now sent out so that this industrial district does no longer deserve this unpleasant name. —

Wolverhampton is generally called "the Capital of the Black Country", Manufactures of brass, tin, steel, and galvanized iron are carried on here, as well as a large trade in locks, keys, and workmen's tools. — Not far from Wolverhampton there are large chocolate works, at Wednesfield. In Dudley, may be seen extensive ironworks, and factories where nails, chains, boilers, and much brass work are turned out. Just outside Dudley there are large coal mines and iron mines, together with limestone quarries. Brickworks and glassworks may also be seen, as well as factories where cheap clothing is made. The Capital of the Midlands is the busy and important City of Birmingham. It is the principal seat of the hardware manufacture in Britain, and, because so many toys are made there, it is sometimes called "the toyshop of the world". Nearly every article of hardware, right from a steel pin up to a mighty steam engine, is made in Birmingham. Pens, sewing machines, locks, fender, fire-irons, bicycles, motor cars, and scores of other articles are turned out here. Firearms, both for the Government and for private use, are also made here, and many ornaments of gold, silver, and gun-metal as well. It was at Birmingham that James Watt started to make steam engines, and even at present the great railway companies have their own locomotive works here.

28. THE FORD INDUSTRIES.

The Rouge Foundry.

The Rouge Foundry is the largest in the world. — It covers over 30 acres and pours 2,000 tons of casting every 24 hours. — It is as completely mechanized as has been possible to make it. Maximum efficiency and

minimum waste motion are apparent to even the untrained observer. The conveyor system reaches a high point of perfection. — The distinctive feature of this foundry is its unusual cleanliness. — Now we shall describe the production Cycle in this foundry. —

Monday 8 a. m. — After a trip of approximately 48 hours the ore boat docks at the River Rouge Plant. It takes only ten minutes to unload the cargo and transfer it to the blast furnace. —

Tuesday 12 h 10'. — 16 hours later the ore has been reduced to foundry iron. It is then cast into pigs and sent to the foundry, where, mixed with certain proportions of scrap, it is remelted. — This takes about 4 hours in all. — Blast furnace metal is also cast direct, in which case 4 hours are saved. —

Tuesday 4 h 10' p. m. — As the conveyor brings the moulds past the pouring station the hot metal is cast into cylinder blocks. — These then go to the shake-out station and are taken away to cool and be cleaned.

Tuesday 12 h 20' p. m. — The casting now goes to its first machining operation. — There are 58 operations in all, all of which are done in approximately 55 minutes. — All these are performed in the foundry building.

Tuesday 1 h 15' p. m. About 3.30 the motor block is ready for the assembly line. — Ford mechanics have reduced the time required for motor assembly to an average of 97 minutes.

Tuesday 3 h p. m. The finished motor coming out is loaded into a freight car and shipped to a branch for assembly into a finished car. A constant stream of freight cars leaves the plant day and night.

Wednesday 8 a. m. Arriving at the branch plant the motor is unloaded and sent to its station on the final assembly line. These assembly lines are standardized the world over and represent specialized workmanship at the peak of efficiency. — In a little more than an hour the car is ready to be driven away. —

Wednesday 12 noon. — Long before noon the dealer will have taken delivery of the car and paid for it. — In the case of drive-aways the dealer often brings his customer to the plant and closes the deal then and there. Here is a conversion of raw material to cash in approximately 33 hours. In this case the allowance for shipping and handling is 15 hours.

29. LONDON INDUSTRIES.

London is not a manufacturing town. It is a great deal more; it is a cluster of manufacturing towns. The actual business of manufacture is carried on outside the City. Some industries are specially identified with certain districts of London. Brewing, for instance, is a very ancient London industry, and in our day there are about 150 large breweries. — With brewing goes distilling, for which, and for sugar-refining, London is also famous. One of the most interesting is the silk manufacture of Spitalfields and Bethnal Green, which was brought to England by persecuted French Protestants, who fled to England

about the year 1685. — Bermondsey and Southwark have been noted for tanning for hundreds of years, and they are still the home of tanners, soap-boilers, and candle-makers. — At Lambeth and Millwall there are large engineering works, and Lambeth, too, has a great name for its potteries. North Woolwich makes candles, and in the Woolwich on the other side of the Thames is established the Royal Arsenal. Boots and shoes and ready-made clothing are manufactured in different parts of the industrial area of London, and Lucifer match-making is carried on in the East End. Clerkenwell is the headquarters of the watch and clock making manufacture, and is also occupied by a large number of printing-houses. Paternoster Row was, till a few years ago, almost the exclusive home of the bookselling and publishing trade. The newspapers, both the London dailies and the provincial journals, have their offices in Fleet Street. —

The cabinet-makers' shops lie principally in the neighbourhood of Shoreditch. Lambeth has extensive hat factories. Long Acre is the ancient seat of the carriage-building. Shipbuilding is chiefly carried on in the Isle of Dogs. The trade in second-hand clothing is chiefly in the hands of the Jews of Houndsditch.

30. SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL ENGLISH AND SCOTCH COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL TOWNS.

Birmingham, has a population of more than 919,000 people. — Its chief trade is in brass working and the making of jewellery, and the manufacture of standardised parts of machinery. —

Liverpool, has a population of more than 800,000 inhabitants. It is the most important port on the west coast of Great Britain. — Its river Mersey is about a mile wide, and the docks and wharves extend for 6 miles along the river banks. — The development of cotton and woollen manufactures in the country behind Liverpool has made this city one of the great trading ports of the world. — The imports are chiefly raw materials and food, and the exports are manufactured goods of cotton, wool, and iron.

Manchester numbers more than 700,000 inhabitants. — It is the centre of the chief industrial district of England, and is famed throughout the world for its cotton and woollen goods.

Sheffield with 500,000 inhabitants, is the chief centre of the heavy-steel and cutlery trade. Close to it are coal and iron mines and grindstone quarries.

Leeds (460,000), is the centre of a great trade in ready-made clothing, leather, and machinery. — It has the largest share of the leather trade of the United Kingdom.

Bristol (377,000) carries on a considerable trade with America, particularly in the import of tobacco and fruit from the West Indies. — As a result, large tobacco factories are to be found there, besides cocoa and chocolate works, and extensive boot and shoe factories.

Bradford (286,000) is the chief seat of the worsted manufacture.

Newcastle is a shipbuilding centre. — It exports also chemicals, pig-iron, iron and steel manufactures and machinery.

Nottingham (266,000) is famed for its cotton hosiery and machine-made lace.

Sunderland is one of the most important ship-building centres in England.

Derby is noted for its manufactures of silk hosiery and porcelain.

Northampton is, next to London, the chief shoe-manufacturing town of England.

Cardiff (229,000), the largest town in Wales, does an immense coal trade.

Swansea is the metallurgical capital of Wales. It does a vast trade in the smelting of iron, copper, silver, zinc, tin, and lead.

Glasgow (1,034,000), the largest city of Scotland, and the second city of the British Isles, is famous for its shipyards, which are the largest in the world.

Edinburgh (420,000) is an educational and distributing rather than a manufacturing city. — It has long been famous for its great publishing business, type-founding, engraving, printing, and book-binding.

31. SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

New York, the great commercial centre of the United States, is second only to London among the great cities of the world in population, wealth, and enterprise. In amount of commerce, it is surpassed only by London, Hamburg, and Liverpool. — The deep bay into which Manhattan Island projects furnishes nearly one hundred square miles of anchorage : while the shores of the island have 25 miles of water-front, all of which furnishes good wharfage area. The adjacent shores supply as much more. New York does more than half of the foreign commerce of the country; and 4 trunk lines of railway connect it with the great producing regions and commercial centres of the west. It is the centre from which most of the great financial transactions of the country emanate; and, as a money-market, it is second to London only. The more important industries are the making of clothing, shoes, cigarettes, and cigars; sugar-refining, printing, and book-binding; brewing, leather-working, and iron and steel-working. — Some of the best ships built in the country are launched here. — At the western end of Long Island is Brooklyn (1,634,000) whose manufacturing industries are very great, but it is also a city of homes for New York business men. — Opposite New York, on the west, is Jersey City (298,000), a suburb of industries and homes.

Boston (748,000), is the second American seaport in commercial importance.

Its harbour is one of the best in the country. — No other part of the country does so much manufacturing as New England; and Boston is the city upon which nearly all these industries depend, both for banking facilities and for the market. It is a great financial centre, and also the chief educational centre of the country. It is the first leather market and the second wool market of the United States.

New Orleans (387,000) is situated one hundred miles from the mouth of the Mississippi River. — About a third of the cotton crop and nearly all of the cotton-seed oil are shipped from New Orleans. Raw sugar grown in Louisiana

is also sent to market through this port. — The leading manufactures of this city are tinware, clothing, boots and shoes, manufactures of wood, and railway cars.

San Francisco (507,000) is the 8th seaport in commercial importance. Nearly all the foreign commerce of the Pacific slope passes through it. Its manufactures are very extensive, especially those of furniture, leather goods, clothing, cigars, fishing, iron and steel, and refined sugar.

Philadelphia (1,823,000) is fourth among the seaports of the United States. The proximity of coal and iron mines accounts for its manufacturing interests being greatly exceeded in value by the shipping interests. The city is especially noted for its woollen industries. It is the greatest carpet manufacturing centre in the world. — It is famous for its manufacture of pressed and other ornamental bricks and terra-cotta ware. In its vicinity, along the shores of the Delaware River, are the largest and most important ship-building yards in the United States.

Baltimore (734,000) has a commerce slightly smaller than that of Philadelphia. It is the greatest oyster-market in the world, and also a considerable tobacco market. — Baltimore, New York, Washington, New Orleans, Philadelphia, and Boston, do about 89% of the importing, and 79% of the exporting of the U. S.

Buffalo (507,000) is an important railway centre. — **Cleveland** (797,000) has a valuable shipping trade in grain, iron ore, and manufactured products, including furniture, and farming implements. — **Detroit** (994,000) is the most important port between Buffalo and Chicago. It manufactures motor-cars in large numbers. — **Chicago** (2,701,000), the second city in population, is the most important port on the Great Lakes. It is the greatest railway centre in the world. About 30 lines make the city their terminus. — It is the greatest food centre in the world. — **Milwaukee** (457,000) manufactures flour, beer, and leather, and has a large trade in grain and timber. — **St. Louis** (773,000), is the great commercial centre of the Mississippi valley, and its largest city. It is a great market for grain, flour, animals, and animal products, tobacco, cotton, cotton-seed oil, and sugar. — **Minneapolis** (381,000) is the greatest flour-producing centre in the world. — **Louisville** (235,000) is the greatest tobacco-market in the world. — **Cincinnati** (401,000) is the largest city in the Ohio valley, and has a large trade in meat and grain. — **Pittsburg** (588,000) is, next to Chicago, the principal iron and steel-producing centre of the country. As a glass-making centre it stands first in the U. S. —

32. CHICAGO.

Chicago, "The Garden City" or "The Windy City" is situated in a region of almost inexhaustible soil, in one of the most productive valleys in the world. It, has, therefore, often been called the greatest food market in the world. Within a night's ride of Chicago live 40,000,000 people. — The things man most needs are cereals, lumber, live stock, steel, copper, clay, fuel; all these are found in or near the Mississippi Valley, and by means of its navigable waters, transportation has been made so easy that these many millions of people are able to live largely on the products of the land about them. —

The center of the wheat area of the United States is in Iowa, 400 miles west of Chicago. — As the crop moves eastward it must pass through Chicago, and the city profits by this transit. — In 1838 87 bushels of wheat left Chicago for Buffalo. — Seventy years later, 10,000,000 bushels were shipped. About one third of the corn crop of the country is fed to hogs, and most of these go to market by way of Chicago. — The oat and hay crop are fed to live stock, and Chicago is known the world over as the greatest live-stock market and meat-packing center. — Chicago is not only the great food distributor of a large part of the Mississippi Basin, but it is a great railroad terminal, and the greatest transportation center in the world. — 27 separate roads make a terminal of Chicago, and 1500 passenger trains leave and enter daily. — Routes of communication radiate from Chicago like the sticks of an open fan. — From its port 17 steamship lines send vessels to all points between Duluth and Buffalo. —

Meat packing is Chicago's greatest local industry. — The McCormick Harvesting Machine Company is the largest concern in the world making farming implements. — In Chicago are immense mills where steel is rolled into rails, wire, and girders. — The Pullman Company makes sleeping, dining, and parlor cars. — Chicago is one of the largest lumber markets of the world, manufacturing furniture, wagons, barrels, cars, etc. — It has large breweries, makes railway supplies, prints books, and makes clothing. — The little Chicago River is a giant in commerce, the tonnage of its yearly trade being greater than that of the Suez Canal. — Grain elevators, coal and lumber yards, grimy warehouses and factories line its banks. —

Chicago has no ancient history. — Its birthday as a city is March 4, 1837. Not yet one hundred years old, it is now the second city of the United States and stands fourth in population among the cities of the world. — In 1823 Chicago had 75 inhabitants; in 1910, 2,185,283. — In 1836 its exports were valued at \$ 1000; in 1911, they were worth \$ 7,000,000.

Of the people that make up this teeming city there are English, Irish, Greeks, Syrians, Germans, Dutch, Russians, Poles, Italians, Swiss, French, Chinese, Scandinavians, Czechs, and colored people.

33. PITTSBURGH.

If you will look in your geography textbooks for a map of the world showing the density of population, you will see that the most thickly peopled areas are in fertile valleys, where the climate is good and routes of travel easy. — Some of the oldest civilizations once lived and still flourish in these valleys. — This is because in such localities the 3 necessities of life — food, shelter, clothing — are easily obtained. — Pittsburgh has something more, because it possesses inexhaustible resources and remarkable transportation facilities. — In the hills which flank the deep steep-sided valleys around Pittsburgh, are enormous veins of bituminous coal, which is easily mined. In many of the valleys is the limestone so necessary in the making of iron; and up the Monongahela lies a deposit of coking coal, which is made into coke at Connellsville and used in the manufacture of steel. — Iron is also found in the rocks of western Pennsylvania. — Pittsburgh, therefore, had to be an iron

center. — Originally, after the close of the Revolution, called "Gateway of the West", it has become in our days the "Smoky City", and "The Workshop of the World". — Our big cities must be built of fireproof material, so Pittsburgh makes steel beams and girders, and bolts to rivet them together. Steel rails and locomotives from Pittsburgh are used in Japan and China, and steel dining-cars, made in Pittsburgh, carry passengers over steel bridges made in the "Iron City". — Pipes for aqueducts, massive castings for Panama, pier work for the Great Lakes, as well as miles of telegraph wire and myriads of lamp chimneys and bottles form part of the freight that leaves the city daily. — Pittsburgh armor plate encases our battleships, and not far from the city are the Westinghouse Companies that supply the world with electrical apparatus, switches, and signals. —

In the valleys of western Pennsylvania and West Virginia lie beds of sand suitable for glass making. — The presence of this sand so near to cheap fuel (the supply of natural gas) gave rise to the glass-making industry. — Pittsburgh leads the world in the production of plate glass. — The largest cork factory in the world is also located here. — One item of export, which added to all the rest makes the tonnage of Pittsburgh 3 times as great as that of New York and Chicago, twice that of London, and 4 times that of Paris. This item is coal. —

Pittsburgh has one of the most picturesque city sites in the world. Cable cars pull you up the steep incline of Mount Washington from the brow of which you will look down on a scene of absorbing interest. — The city business is crowded into the small triangular area known as the **Point**. — Trolley lines, railroads, and bridges converge here, for back of the Point rises The **Hump**, and beyond are more hills given over to residences, parks, churches, the splendid Carnegie Museum, Library, and Technical Schools, the University and numerous playgrounds.

34. GARY.

Gary is the typical example of an American city created in a day. — It was founded in 1906 and in 3 years it had 15,000 people, living in nice little homes, on broad paved streets, provided with electric lights, pure water, good schools, and many other things which go to make up city life nowadays. — It was the United States Steel Corporation that undertook to create not only the most perfect steel plant in the world, but at the same time to provide homes for those connected with the industry, and to do this in a way and on a scale unparalleled in history.

They chose for their purpose a tract of waste land in Indiana on Lake Michigan, 25 miles southeast of Chicago. — After the spot was selected, the magician's work began. There was no possible harbor where ore boats could land, much less turn around and go back, only a long straight beach backed by sand dunes which the winds chased this way and that. But this was no obstacle; the magician merely waved his hand, and a harbor was made. Out of the waters of Lake Michigan there grew up a long sea wall to break the force of the winds for which the lake is famous; a ship canal was extended into the land and made to end in a turning basin, where half a dozen 12,000-ton ore boats can turn easily around; the Calumet River, which ran its sluggish

course parallel to the lake, was lifted up and put into a new channel dug for it; and as if all this were not enough to show that a wizard was at work, 3 railroads which lay in the way of the proposed mills were taken up bodily and laid down again back from the lake front. While this was going on steam shovels were levelling the hills and filling up hollows, and surveyors were laying out streets. Then a tunnel was dug far out under lake for a supply of pure water; conduits for gas and electric lights were laid alongside sewers and water mains; streets were paved; an old trail in the woods became Broadway, one hundred feet wide and four miles long; trees were transplanted and parks set aside; schools, hotels, homes, shops, banks, and churches were built; the town was christened after the chief of all the magicians — and Gary was born.

But it is in the construction of the steel works that the highest skill and power has been shown. It may seem strange to learn that while millions were spent on achieving these wonderful results, the keynote of all the work done has been economy — to do everything the best way from the start, to let nothing go to waste. Engineers have known for a long time that the gas and smoke that pour from the chimneys of most factories represent so much power going to waste, for gas can be made to give out both light and heat, and smoke consists of tiny particles of coal that has been imperfectly burned. The builders of the Gary mills planned to introduce a new feature; they would use all these valuable by-products; in this way their mills would be run more economically, and they would get rid of the smoke. So by the side of the blast furnaces they installed machinery for cleaning the gas and leading it to a power house where it operates blowing engines, which in turn provide practically all the electrical power required for running the machinery of the mills. No one can realize what this tremendous power means who has not stood in a rolling mill and watched the ponderous machines moving swiftly back and forth, rolling and stretching the glowing steel ingot into rails as easily as you would mold a lump of clay.

35. HOW RAW COTTON IS OBTAINED.

Raw cotton is obtained from the cotton plant, which is a relative of our common hollyhock and mallow. — Several varieties of this plant are known, but all of them will only grow well in climates warmer than our own. — On this account we are forced to obtain our supplies of raw cotton for our mills from such countries as the United States, India, Egypt, and Central and West Africa. — In these regions the cotton plant is grown in large plantations, which, when well cultivated, yield an average of about 400 pounds weight of raw cotton per acre. —

After the sowing of the seeds the plant reaches maturity in about 2 months, producing at this time numerous large yellow flowers, which in a day or two change to a pink colour. — As the beautiful blossoms fade, each gives rise to a seed-vessel or boll containing several seeds, to whose outer coat are attached great quantities of downy hairs, which form the substance we know as raw cotton. — When ripe the bolls burst, and the cotton with the seeds attached is picked by hand. — The seeds must now be removed from the fibre,

and this is done upon the plantation by means of a machine called a gin. — If we examine a sample of the cotton as it leaves the gin, we shall find it to be a matted mass of fibres, which twist and adhere together so closely as to allow themselves to be drawn out into a thread without breaking apart. It is this quality which renders the cotton fibre so useful for the manufacture of thread or cloth.

The seeds having been removed, the cotton is pressed into compact bundles, termed bales, which are wrapped round with coarse cloth and bound with iron bands or ropes. — The bales are then stored in warehouses ready for shipping abroad. The merchants who have bought the crop have full control over the cotton supply, and if prices are low, they often hold the crop back, until the scarcity of raw cotton causes a great demand for it, and thus increases the price. — This holding back of the supplies is termed "cornering" the cotton, and since our manufacturers cannot afford to pay the high prices asked for, they try to break up the "corner" by working short time, or by closing their mills altogether, and thus causing a smaller demand. The merchants are at length compelled to sell their cotton to obtain money, and directly this selling begins, prices generally fall with a rush, and what is called a "slump" takes place. — At these times the prices often fall below the buying price, and the merchants usually become bankrupt. Owing to this system of gambling in cotton, our own workers in the cotton trade sometimes suffer severely through the stopping of our mills. —

After the cotton has been bought from the foreign merchants, it has to be brought to Britain in ships. Most of our supplies are shipped to us from the ports of New York, New Orleans, Alexandria and Bombay, and Liverpool is our great receiving port. If we visited the docks at Liverpool we should see numerous steamers unloading bales of cotton, which are then carted away, or stored in warehouses. Since the making of the Manchester Ship Canal, many vessels carry their cargoes of cotton right into the heart of Manchester, almost to the doors of the mills, thereby saving the great cost of carriage by rail. —

After being landed, the cotton is taken charge of by dealers known as cotton brokers, who sell it to the manufacturers. Nearly all this business is carried on at the Liverpool Cotton Exchange. This handsome building, considered to be the finest of its kind in the world, was opened in 1906. Here, on market days, the manufacturer meets the broker, and bargains with him for supplies. Boys hurry hither and thither, bearing bundles of cotton wrapped up in brown paper, and open at both ends for inspection, all the various kinds and qualities of cotton being bought by sample.

The different sorts of cotton are known by their places of origin; thus we hear the terms Sea-Island, Egyptian, New Orleans, Broach, etc., applied to the samples shown. Sea-island cotton, which is grown along the eastern shores of the United States, is the finest known, having a strong, silky fibre or staple, and a creamy tinge. Egyptian cotton is also a superior cotton, with a long and strong staple, but is often very dirty; New Orleans cotton is clean, soft and silky, but is shorter in staple than those last mentioned, and Broach cotton from India, though soft and silky, is rather short in fibre.

The value of the raw cotton brought into Britain annually from abroad amounts to about forty million pounds, and far exceeds that of any other

import, with the single exception of corn. Most of the cotton is used for the manufacture of yarn, plain and figured cloths, muslin, cambric, sateen, velveteen, lace curtains, etc.; some of it is used as "cotton-wool" for dressing wounds; some is made use of in the production of gun-cotton; whilst a part is employed in the making of celluloid.

36. HOW COAL IS OBTAINED.

In many districts in the coalfields the seams of coal come out to the surface, and are seen exposed on the hillsides. — Where this happens, the coal is often worked by driving a sort of tunnel into the seam. Coal mines of this kind are called "drifts" and "levels".

Where the coal is far from the surface, a deep pit or "shaft", as it is called, is made straight down into the earth until the seam is reached. Different layers of stone, sand, clay, etc., are cut through, some being of a very firm nature, while others readily crumble away. In the latter case the pit is very carefully walled round with bricks or stone, so that the sides cannot give way. — A few of the pits in our country are a thousand yards deep. — As soon as a good seam of coal has been reached, an engine with hauling gear is fitted up at the mouth of the pit. — Tubs or "cages", as they are called, are made for the miners to go down the pit, and small wagons for bringing up the coal. Very soon several ways are cut into the seam and wagonloads of coal are hauled up. —

Let us pay a visit to a mine when the men are descending to their work. Each one is supplied with a safety lamp, carefully locked, and a notice is posted up forbidding anyone to carry matches into the pit. Soon about 10 men are in the cage, and are let rapidly down to the bottom of the shaft. Then the men separate in different directions, each one going to the part of the mine where his work lies. — When a pit is in full working swing, you will be surprised to see with what order everything is carried on. There are many classes of workmen, for many duties have to be performed, and each man has his duty. There are men to hew the coal, and others to place it in the wagons, and see that the roadways are kept clear of falls; others again have charge of the horses and engines, which draw the wagons to the bottom of the shaft.

From the bottom of the pit lines of rails run in several directions to the various workings. Sometimes a miner has to walk one or two miles along the underground pathways before he reaches his place for working, and where the mine is near the seashore, he works beneath the sea. Along the main roadways, and in the engine rooms and the stables for the horses, electric light is often used. — The animals are well fed and housed, and are very happy in their large, clean and warm stables, which are well built and lined with white tiles.

When the coal has been hauled to the surface, it is screened and sorted; the large lumps are separated from those of small size, and the dust forms another heap. — Trucks, holding many tons, are then filled with the various classes of coal, and sent away by rail. In the Midlands, where canals are numerous, a great deal of coal is conveyed from the collieries by water.

Prof. M. Drvodelić: »Engleska trgovačka čitanka«.

37. ENGLISH COALFIELDS.

Many thousands of years ago, our country was covered with dense forests which contained trees and shrubs quite different from any which exist in England at present. In course of time the land sank, forming shallow basins into which flowed a quantity of water, carrying with it mud and sand, which gradually filled up the basin and buried the forests. On this new soil fresh forests grew up, which in their turn were buried; this happened time after time.

Now the buried trees were pressed very hard by the earth which settled on top, and as they rotted, the heat inside the earth and the pressure above slowly turned them into coal, somewhat as we can turn the pieces of wood into charcoal. In coal we sometimes find impressions of leaves, showing what the trees were like; we also find the impressions of fishes which swam in the water, and which were very different from any fish we see now. The coal lies buried deep down under the surface, and in order to obtain it men have to dig holes and tunnels in the earth.

There are many different kinds of coal. The best is called "anthracite" or "smokeless coal", which, on burning gives off no smoke at all. This is found in South Wales and is used in our large warships. — Then there is the ordinary household coal, which has not been pressed and heated in the earth to so great an extent, and which burns with rather a smoky flame. There is also "brown coal", not much found in England, in which we can distinctly see the wood-structure, and which burns with a very smoky flame. Besides these we have what is called "peat", found largely in Ireland and also in parts of England and Scotland. This consists of a mass of compressed moss and grass. If it were left under pressure for thousands of years it would probably form coal. —

There is not always coal under surface. Some parts of the land were high up and did not sink below the water, consequently coal was not formed there. — The richest of the English coalfields is that of Northumberland and Durham, containing the town Newcastle-on-Tyne as its centre. To the south of this we have the Yorkshire and Derbyshire Coalfield, which extends from Leeds to Derby; while on the other side of the Pennine Chain we have the South Lancashire Coalfield, extending from the Ribble to the Mersey. A little to the south of this we find the Staffordshire Coalfield, situated in what is called the "Black Country", so named from the thick clouds of smoke sent forth from factory chimneys, and the huge pit-mounds, or heaps of waste coal, which are to be seen everywhere. There is also the small coalfield of Cumberland, situated to the North-west of the Cumbrian group, and here coal is worked from underneath the sea. — In Wales we find coalfields, a small one in the North by the river Dee, and a large one in the South, from which some of the finest coal in the world is obtained. — Scotland and Ireland are not so well supplied with coal as England. Scotland possesses one large coalfield and a few smaller ones; whereas Ireland has only one or two very small ones. — The coalfields of the British Isles provide over two hundred and fifty million tons a year.

38. SOME AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS. — ANIMALS — MANUFACTURES.

Wine. — France easily leads the world in the quality and quantity of its wine production. The dry, warm valley slopes of Champagne and Burgundy produce the well-known brands; the Bordeaux district is famed for its clarets; Cognac, in Charente, produces the brandy (spirit distilled from wine), which is the richest of all in organic ethers; and Guienne, the Loire valley, and the south coast are important producing areas. Italy ranks after France as a wine-producer. Italian wines are usually ill-prepared. Sherry is produced in the neighbourhood of Cadiz. Portuguese wines are grown chiefly in the basin of Douro. Hungary specializes in Tokay, a syrupy and sweet wine. Hock and Moselle are German wines.

Tobacco. — The tobacco of commerce is the dried and prepared leaves of 3 species of the genus *Nicotiana*. It thrives best on a light soil that is rich in lime, humus and potash. Very few plants are as susceptible to culture and climatic conditions. — The best cigars are made from the fresh leaf of "marine" tobaccos (Cuba, Sumatra, and Manila); the best pipe tobaccos are manufactured from "continental" tobaccos (the basins of the Ohio, the upper Danube, and the upper Garonne); while "Mediterranean" and "semi-marine" tobaccos (Syria, Greece, Anatolia, Egypt, and Virginia) are the best for cigarettes. The quality of the leaf varies with the soil. Heavy soils produce strong tobaccos, and light ones mild.

Timber. — The present great demand for timber, and the wasteful exploitation of forests in the past, have greatly increased the price of timber, and compelled most timber-producing countries to adopt scientific afforestation.

The bulk of the timber used, is from the conifers, which grow rapidly, branch little, and are soft enough to be easily worked. Most of the timber is exported in the form of logs, deals, deal ends, planks, and boards. — Several of the tropical timbers are hard, close-grained, and capable of taking a uniform stain, and are therefore much in demand for furniture. Others are needed for the coachbuilding, and for paving and harbour works. — One of the most valuable timbers is the teak. Its hard and durable nature, and its little tendency to "rust" even when continuously exposed to moisture, make it very suitable for shipbuilding, harbour works, and construction work generally. — The cool-temperate and transitional lands have the coniferous and the deciduous types of forest. The former supplies soft, the latter hard woods. A vast lumbering industry is carried on in all countries. Hard woods are: oak, elm, beech, hornbeam, ash etc. Soft woods are the white pine, spruce, larch, etc.

Cattle. Cattle are bred mainly for either meat or milk (dairy cattle) or for draught purposes. — Live cattle are exported from all countries. Beef, fresh, chilled, frozen, and canned, is exported from Argentina, Canada, etc. The Scandinavian countries export butter, while Holland exports cheese. Horns, bones, hoofs, and hides, are the by-products of cattle-ranching and meat production. Condensed milk and dried milk are exported from Switzerland, etc. — The hides of cattle and horses and the skins of the kid, chamois, reindeer, dog, and whale, are the chief source of the raw materials of leather. The great sources of hides are the stockyards of the world. Some countries export hides ready tanned. — **Pigs** are reared in all countries except by the

Mohammedan population. They feed on acorns and beech mast in oak and beech forests. Most pigs are, however, bred in maize-producing countries, especially the United States. Pork, bacon, hams, lard, and bristles are the chief products obtained. — **Poultry** — fowls, ducks, geese and turkeys — are most favourably reared in grain-producing countries. Cold storage enables large quantities of poultry to be exported to the industrial lands. Eggs are a commodity in enormous demand all over the world, but especially in western Europe. Waxed, dried, and fresh eggs are exported from many countries.

39. THE GEOGRAPHY OF ENGLAND.

Industries and Commerce.

England is mountainous towards the west and north, hilly towards the centre and south, and level towards the east. — The highest mountain **Snowdon** is in Wales. — It is nearly 3600 feet high. — England has a tilt towards the east and south, so that most of the larger rivers flow east into the North Sea. — The chief river in England, the **Thames**, has its source in the Cotswolds. — The Severn is the longest river in Great Britain. — There are few lakes in England, and these are confined almost entirely to the Lake District. The largest is Windermere.

The climate of England is neither very hot in summer, nor very cold in winter. There is no country in the world in which men can carry on their work out-of-doors on so many days of the year. — The rainfall is heavier towards the west than towards the east. — Nowhere in England does sunshine throughout the year average more than 4 hours, save on a small part on the east and south. —

Productions. — English farming concerns itself with grain growing, stock breeding, including horses and cattle, dairy farming, sheep farming, fruit growing, and market gardening.

Commerce. — Placed almost in the centre of the land surface of the globe, England has an excellent position for trade. — All round her coasts there are splendid harbours and numerous tidal rivers with harbours at their mouths. — With her plentiful coal supply, the mechanical skill and ingenuity of her workers, her gathered wealth, her fine position for trading, her large seafaring population, and her splendid natural harbours, England became the leading commercial nation of the world. The internal trade is very great, and is carried on by road, by railway, and by canal. London is the great railway centre, and from it all the main lines of railway run. — Northern England is very populous. — It yields more coal than all the rest of England, and the coalfields are so placed that they have become each the centre of a great manufacture. In the eastern coalfield Newcastle is the industrial centre, where shipbuilding and engineering is carried on. — In the Yorkshire coalfield are the woollen towns, with Leeds for business centre. — The actual clothmaking is carried on chiefly in Bradford, Huddersfield, Wakefield and Halifax. — Sheffield has long been famous for its cutlery, its silver and plated goods. —

Manchester and its neighbouring towns are engaged in the cotton manufacture. — Besides cotton-weaving and spinning machinery of all kinds

produced here, engines, all kinds of machines and tools, glass, silk and chemicals are made here. Derby manufactures porcelain, and Nottingham does a large trade in hosiery and lace. — Northern England includes the north part of Staffordshire, the part known as the Potteries (chief town Hanley). — In the Midlands we have Leicester, the centre of the hosiery manufacture and shoe making. — Coventry is now one of the chief towns in England for the making of bicycles and motor cars. — Birmingham, the chief town in the Midlands, takes the lead in the manufacture of all kinds of metal goods, jewellery, and plated goods. — Wolverhampton is in the heart of what is known as the Black Country. — Kidderminster is noted for its carpets, Monmouth for its large steel and tinplate works and Gloucester for its agriculture. — London is not only the largest, but, taken all in all, the greatest manufacturing city in the world, as well as the most commercial. It is also the world's largest seaport. — Eastern England is the great wheat- and barley-growing region. It is almost entirely agricultural. — The eastern part of the southern England is mainly agricultural and residential. It contains coastal and other pleasure resorts for the Londoners. — Fruit and vegetables are grown largely for the London market. — In the west, in Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall, there is some of the best grazing land in England. Cider is one of the most important products of Devonshire. These two counties were for ages noted for their mineral wealth, namely for their copper and tin.

40. KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES.

Yugoslavia was formed by the union with Serbia of various communities of Southern Slavs. To the former Kingdom of Serbia has been added Montenegro, Croatia, Slavonia, the Bačka, and the western part of the Banat taken from Hungary; Bosnia, Hercegovina, Dalmatia, and Slovenia (the greater part of Carniola, and the southernmost portions of Carinthia and Styria) which belonged to Austria; and some of the western districts of Bulgaria. Physically, Yugoslavia belongs to several very different regions. The Bačka the Banat, and the greater part of Croatia and Slavonia fall within the Hungarian plain. Slovenia forms part of the Alpine zone. Dalmatia, Hercegovina, and Montenegro together with the western parts of Croatia and Bosnia, are traversed by the Dinaric ranges and have a Karst topography. Serbia and the eastern parts of Bosnia belong, in the main, to the mountainous region of the Thraco-Macedonian massif. —

The Northern Plains include that part of the Banat ceded to Yugoslavia, the Bačka, and the eastern part of Croatia-Slavonia. In the Banat and the Bačka the soil is fertile, and the region was one of the most noted in Hungary for the production of wheat. The eastern part of the country lying between the Drava and the Sava is a lowland covered with loess, but farther west there are sands and clays from which isolated hills emerge. — In the lowlands of **Croatia** and **Slavonia**, cereals, especially maize and wheat, tobacco, and sugar-beet are grown. The vineyards on the low hills in the west suffered severely from the phylloxera, but are beginning to recover. Plums are grown in the upland country to the north of Zagreb, and are either distilled for brandy or dried for prunes. Horse-breeding, pig-raising, and bee-keeping are all important

pursuits. These varied occupations give employment to the mass of the people, but agricultural methods, although they have made considerable progress within recent years, are still somewhat backward, and the land does not yield what it might under more favourable conditions. The manufactures which exist are chiefly concerned with working up the agricultural produce of the country; distilleries and breweries, flour mills, and silk and tobacco factories are widely distributed. As forests are abundant, more especially in the west, there is a considerable output of wooden goods of various kinds. Zagreb, Osijek, and Zemun are among the more important industrial towns.

The Alpine region. — Slovenia falls within the Alpine zone. The most fertile districts include the basin of Ljubljana, which forms the heart of the Slovene country, and the basin of Celje to the north-east. Here, alluvial soil produces good crops of cereals, while the vine and other fruits are cultivated on the sunny slopes of the surrounding hills. — The mineral wealth of this region is not unimportant. Coal is found in the valley of the Sava at Trbovlje, and from the mines there, together with those of Zagorje in Croatia, an annual output of over 1,500,000 tons is obtained. Lead is mined and smelted near Prevalje and at Litija. Celje smelts zinc ore. Other minerals include quicksilver and iron ore. Manufactures are but little developed, and, apart from the textile industries of Ljubljana and the numerous saw-mills scattered throughout the forested areas, are of local importance only.

The Karst region includes part of Carniola, the west of Croatia and Bosnia, Dalmatia, Hercegovina, and Montenegro. Its distinguishing feature is the limestone, of which it is almost entirely composed. This limestone has been much affected by water and a great part of the drainage is now underground, so that notwithstanding its heavy precipitation — frequently 60 inches — the country suffers severely from drought. In certain valley-like depressions, to which the name of *polje* is given, the water comes to the surface, and it is in these depressions accordingly that best agricultural land is to be found. — Cereals are cultivated, while tobacco is one of the chief crops of Hercegovina. — Much of the mountain area is barren, but where there are deciduous and coniferous forests there are meadows to which shepherds from the lowlands bring their flocks during summer months. Along the coast, between the sea and the mountains, lies a narrow belt of country in which the Mediterranean type of climate prevails. In places which have sufficient water and are sheltered from the *bura*, a cold wind blowing down from the mountains, the vine, the olive, and various fruits are grown. The total area capable of cultivation, however, is limited, and many of the inhabitants seek employment in fishing, in navigation, and in commerce. Within recent years, also, manufactures have developed. Calcium carbide is made at Šibenik by hydro-electric power obtained from the Krka at Skradin and Manilovac. Split is the centre of an important cement industry. —

Northern Serbia possesses sands and clays covered with a thick layer of humus, and the soil is very fertile. Formerly wooded, the land is now cleared, and is dotted with farmsteads, vineyards, and orchards. Maize and wheat are extensively grown and other cereals are cultivated, while the prolonged autumns, characteristic of the region, enable various fruits to ripen to perfection. Of these the most important is the plum; part of the crop is used

in the manufacture of *slivovica*, a brandy, which forms the national beverage of the Serbians, and part is exported in the form of prunes. The industrial crops include sugar-beet, hemp, and tobacco. —

Nearly one-fourth of the forested area of Yugoslavia lies in Bosnia and Slavonia, the principal trees being the beech, the oak, and (in Bosnia) the fir. — Coal (brown coal and lignite) is worked in various parts of Northern Serbia. Of greater importance are the copper mines at Madjanpek and Bor. — In Bosnia, at Tuzla, deposits of salt, the most important in Yugoslavia, have given rise to a chemical industry. There are large deposits of iron ore at Ljubija, and at Vareš there are blast furnaces. — Of the domestic industries, carpet-making at Pirot has more than local importance. — In **Central Serbia** there is much fertile soil, and cereals and fruit are extensively grown. Of the lower slopes of the surrounding mountains cattle and sheep are raised in considerable numbers. — **Southern Serbia** may be divided into two regions, a western highland and an eastern lowland. In the former there are a number of lake basins such as those of Monastir, Ohrida, and Prespa. — The mountain slopes are unforested, and in the lowlands, where irrigation is practiced, mulberries, vines, tobacco, and rice are grown.

From the foregoing survey it is evident that the economic future of the land is bound up with the development of its agricultural resources. — Manufactures will be handicapped by the want of coal and other minerals on an extensive scale, but, with utilization of the large supplies of water-power which exist, it should be possible to develop many local industries in which such products of the land as timber, hemp, and sugar-beet would be prepared for the consumer. — The present outlets of Yugoslavia are by way of Salonica, Gruž, and Sušak. Part of the harbour at Salonika with land and buildings has been constituted a Free Zone for the benefit of Yugoslavia. Gruž on the Adriatic is the port of Dubrovnik, and the centre of a large transit trade. Since the settlement of the Fiume question, Baroš, the port of Sušak, has also developed a considerable trade. — The principal exports of Yugoslavia are timber, wheat, maize, live stock, meat, and copper; the imports include textiles, iron and steel goods and machinery, sugar and coffee, coal and coke.

(J. M. Farlane, Economic Geography).

41. WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

There are three kinds of weight, viz., AVOIRDUPOIS, APOTHECARIES', and TROY weight. — The last-named is used by jewellers and goldsmiths; Apothecaries' is used by apothecaries or druggists; and Avoirdupois is used for all general purposes, and is the one which must be known. — It is as follows — 1 oz. (one ounce) = 28.35 grammes : 1 lb (one pound = 16 ozs = 453.6 grammes); 1 cwt (one hundredweight) = 112 lbs. = 50.8 kgs; 1 T (one ton) = 20 cwt. = 2240 lbs. = 1016 Kgs. —

In certain trades, as meat, for example, weights are calculated in stones (= 14 lbs) and pounds. — A man's weight is reckoned in this way; he is said to weigh so many stone (no plural!!) and so many pounds.

Measures of Length.

1 in. (one inch) = 2.54 cm : 1 ft (foot) = 12 in. = 3.04 : 1 yd (yard) =
 = 3 ft (feet) = 0.9144 m : 1 po. (pole, rod, perch) = 5½ yards = 5.03 m : 1 fm
 (fathom) = 6 ft, 2 yards = 1.828 m : 1 fur. (one furlong) = 220 yards = 2.0116
 Hm : 1 mi. (one straight or British mile) = 1760 yards = 1.609 km.

Square Measure.

For measuring land, surface, etc., — 1 sq (are) in = 6.45 sq cm : 1 sq. ft.
 (square foot) = 144 sq. in. = 9.29 sq. dm. : 1 sq. yd. (square yard) = 9
 sq. ft. = 0.8361 sq. m. : 1 acre = 40.5 ares = 0.40468 hectares : 1 square
 mile = 640 acres = 259 hectares.

Cubic (or Solid) Measure.

1 cubic inch = 16.3871 cubic cm. : 1 cubic foot = 28.317 cubic dm.

Liquid Measure.

1 pint = 0.568 l : 1 quart = 2 pints = 1.1359 l : 1 gallon = 4 quarts =
 = 4.546 l.

Horse power. — This is the standard used in estimating the working
 capacity of gas and steam engines. — The lettes I. H. P. denote "indicated
 horse-power", i. e. the power required to raise a certain weight at the rate of
 so many feet or metres a second.

DRUGI DIO.

STRUČNA ČITANKA.

1. COMMERCE.

Commerce means the interchange of commodities on a large scale between nations or individuals. — When, however, business men refer to this interchange they usually call it **trade**, and the two words may be taken as having the same meaning.

Commerce or Trade is divided into three branches, as follows: —

1. **Home trade**, or **inland trade**, which is carried on between persons living in the same country;
2. **Foreign trade**, which consists of the business carried on between persons of different countries; and
3. The **carrying trade**, which means the business of transporting goods by sea.

The difference between the value of the exports from and the imports to a country is known as the **balance of trade**. Formerly this balance was considered favourable when the value of the exports exceeded that of the imports, and unfavourable when the opposite was the condition of trade. — The fallacy of this opinion is now generally recognized.

2. BUSINESS PEOPLE.

Various classes of persons are concerned in the carrying on of trade, each class having its own characteristics and confining itself to its own branch of the work.

The **merchant or wholesale trader** seeks out the sources of manufacture; imports or exports goods on his own account, or on commission for his foreign customers; and also, in a way, acts as both agent and banker for them.

The **retail dealer** obtains his supplies from the merchant, and sells single articles or small quantities of goods to the public.

The **manufacturer or producer** ignores the small dealer and disposes of his goods to the wholesale merchant direct, or by means of the middleman.

The **middleman**, as the name implies, acts as an intermediary between the manufacturer or producer and the consumer. Many attempts have been made to dispense with the services of this useful class of business men, but they have been unsuccessful. — With the present system of trade between different countries or districts the middleman is a great convenience, if not an absolute necessity.

An **agent** is one who buys or sells goods or transacts business affairs for another. — A **particular agent** is authorized by his principal to transact some special business; his powers ceasing when that business had been executed. A **general agent** is empowered to act for his principal in a general way, as long as the appointment lasts. — The remuneration of an agent is usually in the

form of a commission of so much per cent. on the value of the business done by him. — Sometimes he is given an extra amount per cent. for guaranteeing the payment for the goods sold by him on behalf of his principal. — This is called **del credere commission**.

A **broker** is an agent who is employed to buy or sell goods for others. He acts as an intermediary between the buyer and the seller. — He does not hold possession of the goods he sells, but arranges the sale, and usually discloses the name of his principal to the buyer and vice versa. — When a sale has been arranged the broker sends to the buyer a document known as a **bought note**, and to the seller a similar document called a **sold note**. — These notes give particulars of the goods sold, the price charged, and the terms of payment. The commission paid to the broker for his services is known as **brokerage**. — There are Stockbrokers, Shipbrokers, Insurance brokers, etc.

A **factor** is an agent who is entrusted with the possession of the goods he is to sell. — He buys and sells in his own name, not in the name of his principal, and he does not bind himself to any particular firm. — There are Corn Factors, Cheese Factors, Leather Factors, etc.

An **auctioneer** is an agent engaged or appointed to sell goods on behalf of another. — He is bound to act according to the instructions of the person by whom he is employed; to take proper care of the goods entrusted to him for sale; and to obtain the best price possible for the goods when offered for sale. — In connection with sales by auction an **upset price** means the lowest amount at which the owner of the goods is willing that the bidding for them shall start; a **reserve price** represents the sum below which the goods will not be sold; while **without reserve** means that the highest bidder becomes the buyer. — The auctioneer signifies his acceptance of an offer by striking his desk with a small hammer. — Hence the goods are said to be **knocked down** to the highest bidder. — In a Dutch auction the auctioneer starts at a high figure, and reduces the amount until some one accepts the offer and so becomes the buyer.

Then there are (**commercial**) **travellers**, persons who are employed by the large wholesale or manufacturing houses to canvass for orders, either in the town in which the business is established (in which case they are known as **town travellers**), or in other towns, or even abroad.

3. COMMERCIAL TERMS.

Goods are sold by **sample**, that is a small portion drawn from the bulk, as in the case of wines, teas, & c., and by **type**, or standard sample, as in the case of corn, rice, coffee, etc., especially when this is sold "**to arrive**", the type being taken from the crop in the early part of the season, and the year's growth being guaranteed equal to the type. — Should the produce prove to be inferior to the type, an allowance is usually made, the amount being settled by arrangement or by arbitration.

Goods are also sold by **description**, where they bear a well-known trade mark; and **on evidence**, in cases where they cannot at the time of purchase be examined, as when goods are sold solely on the evidence of the shipping documents relating to them.

When goods are sold **on approval** or **on sale or return**, the buyer has the right to accept or to refuse them, so long as he decides within reasonable

time. — An unreasonable delay in giving notice of refusal would be considered equal to an expression of approval of the goods.

A **spot sale** means that the goods are actually on hand, and can be delivered immediately. — When goods are sold **to arrive**, it means that they are in course of transit from abroad, and will be delivered on the arrival of the vessel by which they are being conveyed.

A sale for **delivery on term** means that the goods are to be delivered at a fixed date. — **Forward delivery** means delivery within a stated period.

A sale **by prompt** signifies that an agreement has been entered into whereby the goods are to be delivered and paid for at a specified date, known as the **prompt day**. — If the buyer wishes to take delivery before the date agreed upon, he must pay for them at the time of delivery.

When goods are sold in packages or cases, there are three distinct weights to be taken into consideration. — The actual weight of the goods is called the **net weight**; the combined weight of both goods and package, the **gross weight**; while the weight of the package in which the goods are enclosed is called the **tare**; and in business there is usually a recognized allowance made for the tare of the case, cask, chest, or other package or container in which goods are secured, according to the custom of each particular trade. **Actual tare** means that the package has been weighed separately from the goods before they were packed. — **Average tare** is taken where the packages are numerous, and of a similar size or shape, and only a few have been weighed so as to form an average for the whole; while **customary tare** is an established allowance made in some trades for the weight of packages which are so invariably alike and of such a uniform weight, as to warrant a fixed percentage allowance being made for them. — **Estimated tare** means that the package has not actually been weighed separately from the goods, but being of a similar size or shape to others which have been weighed, it is estimated to weigh the same. — **Super tare** is an additional tare made in some instances when the package exceeds a certain weight.

Loco or at warehouse means that the price is for the goods as they lie in the warehouse of the seller; the buyer to take delivery of them there and remove them at his own expense.

Cost and Freight (C. & F.) means that the price includes the cost of the goods, packing, railway carriage, freight and shipping charges upon them.

Cost, Insurance and Freight (C. I. F.) signifies that the price includes the cost of the goods, shipping charges, and the expense of effecting an insurance upon them.

Cash on Delivery (C. O. D.) means that the goods are to be paid for at the time of delivery.

Free Alongside Ship (F. A. S.) means that the goods are to be delivered free alongside but not on board the vessel.

Free on Board (F. O. B.) signifies that for the price named the seller will put the goods on board the vessel free of further cost to the buyer.

Free Overside means that the buyer must provide his own lighter or barge alongside and take delivery of the goods as they leave the vessel's slings. — This condition is common when goods are sold "**to arrive**".

Free on Rails (F. O. R.) means that the price includes delivery of the goods into the waggons of the railway company.

Firm offer signifies that only within a specified time will an order be accepted at the price named and on the conditions stated.

Subject to being unsold is a phrase employed when the same goods are offered to several likely buyers. — The first one to accept secures the goods.

Without engagement means that the price at which goods are offered is the nearest market price of the day, but the seller does not bind himself to accept an order at it without further negotiation.

In bond means that the goods are stored in a bonded warehouse, and that the price does not include payment of the customs duties due upon them, an expense which must be borne by the buyer of the goods.

4. OFFICE BOOKS.

The principal books of accounts are as follows.

The **Invoice Book** is used for the purpose of keeping a record of the credit purchases by a firm. — The money column is added up at the end of each month and the amount posted into the **ledger** on the Dr (debtor) side of the "Purchases Account".

The **Day Book** is the book in which are recorded the particulars of the goods sold on credit by a firm. — The total amount of sales effected during each month is posted to the Cr. (credit) side of the "Sales Account" in the Ledger.

The **Cash Book** is used for the purpose of recording the amount of cash received and paid by a firm in the course of business.

The **Journal** is used in some forms in order to record such transactions as may not properly be entered in any other book, and as an intermediary between the Cash Book, Day Book, etc., and the Ledger.

The **Bill Book** is kept for the purpose of recording the particulars of the bills of exchange granted to or by a firm.

The **Ledger** is the most important book of all, as it contains in a brief form the information which is set out at length in the other books. — It shows at a glance how a firm stands with regard to its debtors or creditors.

The subsidiary books are:

The **Warehouse Book**, in which are entered particulars of the goods received and sent out by a firm.

The **Stock Book**, which contains an inventory of the goods on hand at the periodical stock-taking.

The **Returns Book**, in which a record is kept of the goods returned to or by a firm for various reasons.

The **Press-copy Book**, into which the invoices sent out by a firm are copied, exactly in the same way as letters are copied in the Letter Book.

5. SOME IMPORTANT BUSINESS DOCUMENTS.

An **Invoice** is a written statement containing details of the quantity, quality, and price of goods sold or consigned, together with the terms of the sale or consignment, and frequently, the mode of delivery of the packages. — We have inland invoices, export invoices, and consular invoices.

A **Statement** is a document which shows in brief form the amount owing by one firm to another. — Most firms require a statement of any accounts owing by them to be sent a few days before their regular pay day.

An **Account Sales** is an account of the sales of goods effected by an agent on behalf of the owner or consigner of the goods. — It is usual for merchants and others to have made up a **pro forma account sales**, that is, an Account Sales made up for form's sake, in order that they may see what would be the total amount of the charges, freight, commission &c., for the goods they wish to consign, and so be able to estimate the probable results of the proposed consignment.

An **Account Current** is a statement showing the amounts of the business transactions between two parties for a stated period.

Receipts for money can be given for settlements in full or for part payments. — In the latter case, the words "on account" are added. — In a receipt should also be stated whether the amount was received in cash or by cheque. — Many firms use books somewhat like a cheque book, containing perforated, detachable, counterfoils.

Order forms are printed forms to be filled out when ordering.

Delivery Order is an order from the owner of goods lying at a warehouse, dock, or wharf, requesting the superintendent to deliver either the whole or a portion of the goods to the bearer of the order. — Such an order is a negotiable instrument, that is to say, it may be transferred from one person to another by endorsement.

A **Credit Note** is a note sent to a customer when he has returned goods or empty packages, when he has been overcharged by mistake, or when an allowance is made him for any other reason.

A **Debit Note** is just the opposite to a Credit Note, and is practically the same as Invoice.

6. BILL OF EXCHANGE.

A bill of exchange, or, as it is sometimes called, a draft, is "an unconditional order in writing, addressed by one person to another, signed by the person giving it, requiring the person to whom it is addressed to pay on demand or at a fixed or determinable future time a sum certain in money to or to the order of a specified person, or to bearer".

Bills of exchange are drawn **at sight**, **at usance**, or at a certain number of days or months **after sight**, or after the date of the document. — The person who gives the order to pay is termed the **drawer** of the bill; the person to whom the order is given is called the **drawee**; while the person to whom the amount is to be paid is termed the **payee**.

If the person to whom the order is addressed agrees to obey it and pay the amount as desired, he signifies his assent by writing across the face of the bill the word "**accepted**", together with his name. — He is then described as the **acceptor** of the bill, while the document itself is frequently called his **acceptance**. — An acceptance, however, may be **general** or **qualified**. — If the acceptor simply signs his name across the face of the bill and adds the name of the bank where payment will be made, the acceptance is general; but if he adds a remark to the effect that payment will be made only upon fulfilment of a stated condition; or that only a part of the sum named will be paid; or

that payment will be made at a certain place only, or at a certain time only; or if any such condition or remark be added to the signature of the acceptor, the instrument is a qualified acceptance.

The word month in a bill means a calendar month, but 3 additional days, called **days of grace**, are allowed on most inland bills. — An **inland bill** is one which is drawn and payable within the British Islands. Any other bill is a **foreign bill**. — A bill of exchange is a negotiable instrument and may be transferred any number of times by **endorsement**.

The **holder** who writes his name on the back of it becomes an **endorser**, and the person to whom he endorses it the **endorsee**. — When there is no place left for signatures, a slip, called an **allonge**, is attached to it for additional endorsements. — There are **blank endorsements**, **special endorsements** (containing besides the signature a direction as to whom the bill is to be paid), and **restrictive endorsements** (stipulating the further negotiation of the bill). — Sometimes a bill bears the phrase, "**in case of need, apply to R. Fox, London.**" — James Gunn". — This means that if the bill is not paid at maturity, Mr. Fox will pay it for the **honour** of Mr. Gunn. — A person who accepts responsibility for a bill is termed a "**referee in case of need**". — When a person refuses to accept a bill, or, having accepted it, refuses to **honour** it by paying the amount when **due**, the holder of the bill hands it to a notary public, who again presents the bill for acceptance or payment, and in case of meeting with another refusal, he **notes** its **non-acceptance** or **non-payment** by writing on a slip of paper, which he attaches to the bill, the answer given to his demand. — This is called **noting a bill**. — A bill is **protested** after it has been noted for **dishonour**. Inland bills do not require to be protested.

A bill which is drawn without receiving **value** in exchange for it, but simply to oblige a friend to obtain money or credit, is known as an **accommodation bill** or **kite**.

Rate of exchange. — The term **foreign exchange** denotes the process by which a debtor in one country is enabled to pay his creditor in another country without the actual transmission of coin, by means of **bills of exchange**. — The amount in the currency of one country which, at any given date, is offered for a fixed sum in the currency of another country, is called the **rate of exchange**. — The calculation of the proportional rates of exchange between 2 countries, through intermediate places, is known as the **arbitration of exchange**. — It is **simple** (when only one intermediate place is concerned) or **compound** (when 2 or more places are concerned).

7. CHEQUE.

A **cheque** is a written order by a customer of a bank, requiring the banker to pay on demand a specified sum of money to a person named, or to the bearer. The cheque must be stamped. — Cheques are drawn payable to **bearer** or to **order**. — A cheque which is drawn payable to bearer will be paid to the person presenting it; but if it is drawn payable to order the person in whose favour it is drawn must **endorse** it before it will be paid by the banker. — Only the drawer can alter a cheque from order to bearer, and even then he must affix his initials to the alteration; but a payee, as well as a drawer, may alter a cheque from bearer to order without initialling the alteration. — A **crossed cheque** has 2 parallel lines drawn across the face of it, with or

without the words "& Co." between the lines. — An **uncrossed cheque** is called an **open cheque**. — When, from one cause or another, a cheque has remained unpaid for a considerable time, it is called a **stale cheque**. — Most bankers will refuse to pay a cheque which is more than six months old. — No man but the drawer can stop the payment of a cheque, and where stoppage is necessary it should be effected by written notice to the bank.

A **promissory note** is a written and signed promise to pay a certain sum of money to a specified person or to his order, or to bearer, either on demand or at a stated time. — Sometimes the term **note of hand** is used to indicate a promissory note. — If a promissory note is signed by more persons than one, it is called a **joint promissory note**. — In this case the makers (i. e. the signers) are liable jointly. — When the promissory note is a **joint and several promissory note**, then the promise to pay is made by both signers jointly, and by each individually.

An **I. O. U.** (i. e. I owe you) is a written acknowledgment of the debt. It is only an acknowledgment of the existence of the debt, but not a promise to pay it.

8. THE FIRM. — THE COMPANY.

Every business is conducted under some particular title, called the name of the firm. — A **partnership** is a combination of 2 or more persons in a business for profit. — An **active partner** is one who takes an active part in the business; a **nominal partner** is one who allows only his name to appear in the title of the firm; a **sleeping** or **dormant partner** is one who invests money in the concern, but neither takes an active part in it nor allows his name to appear in the title by which it is known.

A **limited company** is an association of 7 or more persons for the purpose of carrying on a trade or business. — There are 2 kinds of companies, namely, **public companies** and **private companies**. A **Public** or **Joint-stock Company** has its capital divided into shares. — Such a company may be either an **Unlimited Liability Company** or a **Limited Liability Company**. — In the former, every shareholder is liable to his last penny for the debts of the concern; in the latter, the liability of each shareholder does not exceed the amount of the shares he has subscribed for.

The amount subscribed or guaranteed by the shareholders in a public company is called the **subscribed capital**, while the amount actually paid on account of the shares held is known as the **paid-up capital**. — The shares are rarely paid for at once. Only a portion of the total value is paid immediately on allotment and the remainder is paid by **calls**, or demands for payments, at stated intervals.

Persons who unite to form a public joint-stock company, must sign a **Memorandum of Association**, which sets forth the name, the place, and the object of the company; the amount of capital, the number, and the names of the shares to be issued, and a declaration to the effect that the liability of the members is limited. — It is usual to have also a set of **Articles of Association**, which constitute the rules according to which the company is to be regulated. These documents must be deposited with the **Registrar of Joint-Stock Companies** at Somerset House for registration. — Finally, the company is

granted a **Certificate of Incorporation**. — After a company has been formed and registered it is usual to issue a **Prospectus**, which is sent together with a **form of Application for Shares**. — The applicant fills up the application and forwards it, together with a deposit of so much per share, to the banker named in the prospectus. — By means of a **Letter of Allotment** the applicant is informed of the number of shares assigned to him. — Should he be refused the shares, a **Letter of Regret** is sent to him, and his deposit returned. — The letter of allotment is eventually exchanged for the **Share Certificate**. — A **register** of all members must be kept correctly posted up, showing the number of shares held by each, and the date of their purchase.

9. BANKRUPTCY.

A person whose liabilities exceed his assets so that he is unable to pay the whole of his debts is called an **insolvent**. — The insolvent ceases trading, **suspends payment**, and this suspension of payment is called **failure**. — A **bankrupt** is only a debtor who has been adjudged bankrupt by the Court. — An insolvent debtor must not become a bankrupt. — He may make a private arrangement with his creditors. — This is called **compounding** with creditors, and the amount accepted in full settlement and discharge of the sum owing by the debtor is known as a **composition**, being reckoned at so much in the pound. — He may also avoid bankruptcy by agreeing to a **Deed of Assignment**, by which he assigns to a **trustee** the whole of his property to be realized for the benefit of his creditors and in satisfaction of their claims upon him. — Any such **Deed of Arrangement** must be registered.

The first step in bankruptcy proceedings is the presentation of a **Petition** to the Court, either by the debtor himself or by a creditor, praying that a **Receiving Order** may be made against the debtor's estate. — A receiving order is an order made by the Court of Bankruptcy, empowering an **Official Receiver** to take charge of an insolvent debtor's estate for the benefit of his creditors. — When this official has investigated the debtor's accounts a **Statement of Affairs** is prepared containing a complete list of the assets and liabilities, after which a **first meeting of the creditors** is called. — If the debtor makes no offer at this meeting or if his offer is not accepted, he will be summoned to appear before the Court for **public examination** as to the cause of his insolvency. — If the creditors cannot agree either to accept a composition or to enter into some arrangement with the debtor, an **Adjudication Order** is issued by the Court declaring the debtor bankrupt and his affairs in **bankruptcy**, so that his estate may be vested in a **trustee** and wound up for the benefit of the creditors. — **Trustees in Bankruptcy** are usually assisted by a **Committee of Inspection**, elected by the creditors from among themselves to watch over the administration of the estate and to see that it is **liquidated** properly.

10. STOCKS AND SHARES.

The difference between these is as follows. — **Shares** when bought need not be fully paid up; but stock must be. — Again, a share cannot be divided; it must be bought entire; whereas stock may be transferred in almost any amount.

Debentures and Debenture Stock. — For the purpose of extending their business operations joint stock companies sometimes raise money without adding to their share capital by borrowing at a fixed rate of interest, the loans being either repayable within a specified time, or irredeemable during the existence of the company. — The document acknowledging the receipt of the sum borrowed is known as a **debenture** or **debenture bond**. Debentures are transferable like shares. — Debentures which are not redeemable by repayment of the amount borrowed are known as **debenture stock**.

Preference Shares are those shares in a joint stock company which give the holder a right to receive a dividend out of the profits before any payment is made to the other shareholders. — The amount of the dividend payable on these shares is usually fixed when the shares are issued. — As possession of these shares confers upon the holder a priority of claim over others, it follows that this class of shares cannot exit alone, but must be issued along with some other kind. — It is sometimes arranged that should the profits in any one year be insufficient to pay the Preference shareholders the agreed amount of dividend, the deficiency shall be carried forward for payment in the following or any succeeding year, when it shall be paid, with interest, if so arranged, before any dividend is paid to the other shareholders. — When this is the case the preference shares are said to be **cumulative**.

Ordinary Shares are those which confer no special right or privilege upon the holder. — They may be issued alone, though they are not usually so issued.

Deferred Shares may be described as almost the exact opposite of preferred shares, inasmuch as the holder of Deferred shares has to wait for his portion of the profits until other shareholders have been paid. — In other words, the holder's claim is deferred.

Founders' or Promoters' Shares are those which are sometimes allotted as remuneration to the promoters of a company, or as a kind of bonus to subscribers for a large number of shares. — Founders' shares are of the nature of Deferred shares, the holders receiving no dividend until the holders of other shares have been paid their due proportion of the profits.

Consols is an abbreviation of the term »consolidated«, and represents the funded debt of the country. — The term has come into use from the fact that the various sums of money borrowed from time to time by the government were ultimately merged or consolidated into one fund, upon which interest is paid at a uniform rate.

Cum dividend or **cum div.**, means that the stock or shares referred to are sold on the understanding that the buyer is to receive any dividend that may be distributed upon them. **Ex div.**, on the contrary means without the dividend that may accrue.

11. THE LONDON STOCK EXCHANGE.

The **Exchange** is a building or place where merchants, brokers, bankers, or other business men meet to do business. — It is a place where business interests of a special character are brought together, and where contracts concerning them are made, as the stock exchange, the corn exchange, the produce exchange, etc. — The **Stock Exchange** is a private institution devoted exclusively to dealings in stocks and shares. — The stock exchange is the market where the securities represented by the investments can be

transferred by the holders. — In 1801 certain dealers in London met together and formulated an elaborate code of rules. The public were excluded from the Stock Exchange premises, and only brokers and dealers admitted.

The securities which are the subject of transfer on the Stock Exchange, represent the holdings in the various Government and Municipal Loans, Banking and Insurance Corporations, and Railway, Mining, and Industrial enterprises, etc. The various classes of securities are grouped together under different "Markets". — The following is a rough classification:

1. Government Securities (British, Foreign, and Colonial). — 2. Municipal Loans, and Foreign and Colonial Corporation Stocks. — 3. Home Rails and Foreign Rails. — 4. Mines. — 5. Banking and Insurance Corporations. — 6. Industrials (comprising the various commercial and industrial enterprises).

Securities can be classified also according to the method of transfer, which takes place in 3 ways, according as the securities are a) **inscribed**, b) **registered**, or c) **bearer securities**. — A) Inscribed Securities (e. g. consols). The title of the holder is evidenced by his name being inscribed in the books of the bank which has charge of the issue. — No document of title is given to the holder. — B) The title of the holders of registered securities is evidenced by the registration in the books of the company of a **Transfer Deed, a Share Certificate** being issued to the registered holder. — C) Bearer securities are made out to bearer (i. e. the holder is not registered in the books of the company) so that the transfer takes place merely by delivery of the bonds.

The members of the Stock Exchange are divided into 2 classes: **brokers** and **jobbers** or dealers. — Brokers sell to or purchase for, the public, while jobbers only sell to or purchase from the brokers.

The Stock Exchange issues an official **List** showing the ruling prices of the stocks and shares based on the transactions which have taken place each day. Stock Exchange prices telegraphed by the Exchange Telegraph Co. by means of the tape machines are called **tape prices**.

12. SOME STOCK EXCHANGE TERMS.

Stockbrokers are the persons who act as agents between buyers and sellers. No transaction can be effected on the Exchange except through the brokers, as the general public are not allowed in the "**house**", as it is called.

Stock jobbers are the persons who actually deal in stocks and shares. The brokers know exactly in which part of the House they will find jobbers willing to buy or sell a particular kind of shares. — When a jobber is asked to quote for a security he always names two prices, one (the lower figure) at which he is prepared to buy, and the other (the higher figure) at which he is willing to sell. — The difference between these two prices is called the "**turn (of the market)**", and it is this difference which constitutes the jobber's profit.

Comparatively speaking, very little business is transacted on the Stock Exchange for ready cash. — It is, therefore, necessary to arrange certain days for settlement of all bargains made. — The Stock Exchange Committee has set aside for this purpose one day in every fortnight. — The settlement occupies three days. — The first day is known as "**contango day**" or **continuation day**, or **carrying-over day**, because on this day the jobbers arrange either

to carry over their bargains to the next account, or to close them at once by delivery of the stock if they have sold, or by payment for it if they have bought. — The second day is "**ticket day**", or "**name day**", because on this day tickets with the names of buyers and sellers pass between the brokers and jobbers. — The third day is "**pay day**", when the accounts between parties must be paid.

Bulls are speculators who buy shares in the hope of selling them again before the next settlement at a higher price than they paid for them.

Bears are speculators who sell shares in the hope that the price at the settlement will be lower than the price at which they sold them. — It must be remembered that stock is not delivered at the time it is sold, nor paid for at the time it is bought. — When a "bull" arranges to "carry-over" from one settlement day to another, he has to pay the other party to the bargain a certain interest on the amount in question called "**contango**". — When a "bear" arranges to defer the delivery of the shares he has sold until the next settlement, he has to pay a premium also, but in his case it is called "**backwardation**".

Stags are speculators who apply for shares in any new company with the sole object of selling them as soon as a premium is obtainable, and never intending to hold or even fully subscribe for the shares.

Options. — This term applies to persons who pay an agreed percentage for the exercise of the option (the choice or right) to buy or sell specified stock at a stated price within a certain time. — If the option is for the right to buy it is known as a **call**; while the option to sell is termed a **put**. — When the options is for the right either to buy or to sell, it is called a **double option**, or a **put and call**.

13. BANKS AND BANKING.

A Bank is an establishment for safe-keeping, lending, and exchanging money. — It is the business of a bank to conduct the cash transactions of customers having current accounts with it; to take charge of, and attend to, their bills and drafts; to act as their agent for the receipt of dividends, the payment of annuities, subscriptions, insurance premiums, etc; and to take care of their securities, jewels, plate, and similar property of great value. — Banks also grant loans, issue letters of credit, remit money from place to place, discount bills, receive money on deposit for fixed or indefinite periods at moderate rates of interest, and attend generally to any monetary transactions of their customers.

In a **Private Bank** the number of partners may not exceed ten. — The proprietors are usually influential men with a large capital, and no member can transfer his share in the business without the consent of the other partners.

Joint-stock Banks are composed of a large number of shareholders who have acquired their shares in the ordinary way like the members of any other public company. — Such banks are either **limited** or **unlimited**. — Such banks issue periodical reports and balance sheets to their shareholders, and the dividends to be paid are publicly advertised. The shares are transferable at any time, and rise or fall in value according to the fluctuations of the market.

Banks of Issue are banks which, besides transacting the ordinary business of a bank, also issue their own notes payable on demand. — The Bank of England is the only bank of issue in London and for a circuit of 65 miles round the metropolis. — The notes issued by the Bank of England are known as Bank Notes, while those issued by other banks are called Country Notes.

Bank of Deposit are those banks which do not issue their own notes, but receive money on which they allow interest at an agreed rate, stipulating that notice of withdrawal must be given by the depositors, so as to avoid the necessity of keeping a large sum in reserve, and to secure to the bank the opportunity of investing in securities which can be readily realized when desired.

A person who deposits a sum of money with a banker, at a fixed rate of interest, is said to have a **deposit account**. — When a person deposits money in a bank on the understanding that he may add to or take from the amount at any time, with or without interest, he is said to have a **current account**.

14. THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

The Bank of England is the largest and the most important bank in the world. — Several other banks of Europe, which were very famous in their own day, were established much earlier, but not one ever did so much business as the Bank of England, or has ever occupied so important a position.

The Bank was founded by William Paterson, a Scotsman, in 1694, at which time the Government were in need of money to carry on the war with Louis XIV of France, and they knew they could get it most easily by allowing a number of gentlemen to join together to establish a bank. — It was agreed, therefore, to grant a charter to a Governor and twenty-four directors for 11 years. — It was really intended to pay back the money borrowed quite quickly, but instead of paying back, the Government borrowed more and more. — The charter has been renewed again and again, and now there is not the least fear of anyone attempting to put an end to the Bank.

At first the business was carried on at Grocers' Hall, in the Poultry, London; but in 1734 the present building was opened, and the Bank of England became known as "the Old Lady of Threadneedle Street". — Most people know the Bank by sight, or they have seen pictures of it. — What a dismal kind of prison it looks! But although its exterior is so grim and ugly, its interior is most attractive.

The building is so strong that it is all but impossible to break into it. — Nothing is left to chance. — The walls are very thick, and in order to make the cellars safe they are also thickly walled.

Every night there are at the Bank about forty soldiers of the Guards to protect the building, and every room is visited over and over again to see that all is secure. — "As safe as the Bank of England" is a well-known phrase.

The business that is done is enormous. — Not only does the Bank carry on the ordinary business of banking, in receiving deposits and paying out money on cheques, but it has other duties to perform, which are quite as important and affect greater sums.

As it is the banking house of the Government, all the money received in the shape of taxes is paid into it, and all payments for carrying on the affairs

of the nation are made through it, which work alone means that more than two hundred millions of pounds are dealt with every year. Then it manages the National Debt, that is, the debt owed by the nation to those people who have lent money to the Government at various times.

A large profit is made out of bullion and foreign coin. — Bullion is uncoined gold. — Foreign coin has to be sent at various times to this country in order to pay debts that are incurred here. — The Bank is bound to buy bullion, if required, at the rate of £ 3 17 s. 9. d. per ounce. — But its value is really £ 3 17 s. 10 ½ d. per ounce, and the 1 ½ represents the charge made for having the gold coined, and is the profit of the Bank.

The Bank has one advantage over most other banks; it can issue bank notes. — Everyone knows the rustling sound of a bank note, and that it is just as good as money. — But why are people so willing to take a piece of paper, as though it were gold? Because they know that there is always gold to meet it at the Bank. — Between twenty and thirty thousand notes are paid into the Bank every day.

All bank notes are printed on the establishment. — The paper is of a special make, and contains many marks of a peculiar kind. — The writing on the note is beautifully done, and some of the letters are so formed that a Bank official can tell a false note directly he looks at it, unless the forger has been very clever indeed. — It is interesting to see the printing establishment at full work; everything is done with such accuracy. — No person could take a note away without the fact being at once discovered, since the machines record every note that is printed.

A large reserve of money is stored at the Bank in solid brick cellars deep down in the ground. — Sometimes there is as much as fifty million pounds worth of coin and bullion. — The bullion lies in solid ingots on barrows, and each ingot is of the value of £ 600 or £ 700. — It is a wonderful sight to see all this wealth lying about. So carefully is everything managed, that it is almost impossible for any of this great store to be taken away without leave.

To carry on its work the Bank needs over a thousand cashiers, clerks, and servants. — It has two branch establishments in London, and 8 in the provinces.

15. ORIGIN OF CLEARING SYSTEM.

It is very clear that there must have always been many mutual obligations between banks. — Thus, the A bank might have 50 or a 100 cheques and bills drawn on the B bank, and the B bank would probably have a considerable number of cheques and bills drawn upon the A bank. — In the primitive method of dealing with them a clerk from each bank would present the cheques and bills at the other bank and receive notes and gold in exchange. This necessitated the use of much money. — At last it occurred to one of the clerks of Messrs. Fuller's Bank, a man of the name of Irving, that the whole work might be accomplished just as well if the clerks met at some fixed place and exchanged the obligations of the bankers, the differences alone being paid in money. — Although it was very obvious that such a method saved time and allowed of large transactions being carried out with the use of very little money, it was not received at first with anything like favour by the majority

of the bankers. — However, a few clerks began to meet daily in 1775, at a room in Change Alley, and there they exchanged cheques and money. These meetings were quite voluntary and informal; but the advantages of the scheme were gradually perceived, and bankers were anxious to join what began to be known as the Clearing House. It was not always easy for them to do so, as the body of bankers who composed it became a somewhat exclusive body, and absolutely refused admission to the early joint-stock banks.

The room in Change Alley was soon found to be too small for the transaction of business, and a room in Lombard Street was hired in 1805. Nine years later a change again took place, and the present building was chosen (1814.). A hundred years ago there were forty-six bankers who cleared through the House. — In 1854 the joint-stock banks were admitted, and the Bank of England joined in 1864. — In 1854 a great change was effected by each member of the Clearing House being compelled to keep an account with the Bank of England. Then it was that the payment of differences in money became a thing of the past. — Each clearing banker drew a cheque at the end of the day upon the Bank of England in favour of any clearing banker to whom he was indebted as a result of the day's clearing, and nothing further was required in the way of settlement except a transfer in the ledger of the bank.

16. LLOYD'S.

Towards the latter part of the Seventeenth Century, the Commercial Community interested in Shipping, met at a small Coffee-House kept by a man of the name of Edward Lloyd, first of all in Tower Street and, after 1691, at the corner of Abchurch Lane and Lombard Street, in the City of London. — The name of this Coffee-House keeper has come down from generation to generation in connection with the greatest shipping and Marine Insurance transactions in the World.

Before this time Marine Insurance appears to have been conducted in England by the Lombards, who came from Italy and gave their name to Lombard Street, but from the time that Lloyd established his Coffee-House, where Seafaring men jostled against Merchants, Britons conducted Marine Insurance in England.

Edward Lloyd, a man of wisdom and enterprise, was the founder of that great system of Commercial and Maritime Intelligence which has ever since been carried on by Lloyd's.

In 1696, he started a Newspaper, which gave a List of Ships whose arrivals and sailings had been reported. — That Newspaper, called "Lloyd's List", was suppressed by the House Lords, and it was not till 30 years later that he was allowed to re-establish it. — Since that date "Lloyd's List" has appeared regularly, and is still printed and published as a daily Shipping and Commercial Newspaper at Lloyd's, Royal Exchange, in the City of London.

In 1770 those frequenters of Lloyd's Coffee-House whose particular business was Marine Insurance, formed themselves into an alliance, and in 1774 they moved to the Royal Exchange, where the Corporation of Lloyd's is still established, and in the same year the Underwriters of Lloyd's found it necessary to have complete information with regard to the construction and condition of the Ships which they insured, and they accordingly established a Register of Shipping. — This undertaking grew and prospered, and is still

carried on by "Lloyd's Register of Shipping" at 71, Fenchurch Street, E. C. 3. (London).

In 1820, an Act was passed by which Marine Insurance in this Country was thrown open, and since that date many other Marine Insurance Companies have been established, and these Companies together with Lloyd's form the Marine Insurance Market of London.

The Marine Insurance Companies, although competitors with the Underwriters at Lloyd's for Insurance business, are yet supporters of the Corporation of Lloyd's and its system of collecting Maritime Intelligence from and diffusing it to all parts of the World.

The Royal Exchange was destroyed by fire on the 10th January, 1838, and by this unfortunate circumstance most of the important records of Lloyd's were lost. — It was to the Rooms at present occupied by Lloyd's that Queen Victoria came when she opened the new Royal Exchange in 1844.

Lloyd's was incorporated in 1871 under Lloyd's Act of that year, having previously existed for about 200 years as unincorporated Society of Underwriters, which had since 1811 been regulated by a Deed of Association and by rules from time to time made under that Deed.

This Act was amended by Lloyd's Act, 1911, under which the objects of the Society were extended to meet the requirements of modern developments.

The Committee of Lloyd's, as a body, is only interested in the Insurance Business carried on at Lloyd's to the same extent that the committee of the Stock Exchange is interested in the Business carried on by its Members, namely, the laying down of regulations to safeguard the interests of Members as well as those of Policy holders.

The work of Lloyd's as a Corporation, is to protect the interests of Members of the Society in respect of Shipping, cargoes, Freights and other Insurance business, and for this purpose it is necessary to obtain early information of the movements of British and Foreign Mercantile Shipping and to be in touch with every Port in the World.

The Corporation of Lloyd's has therefore established Signal Stations and Wireless Stations at many important points on the Coasts of the United Kingdom and Abroad, and there is a Lloyd's Agent, or Sub-Agent, at every Port in the World.

Lloyd's Signal and Wireless Stations have proved themselves very valuable not only to Underwriters but also to Shipowners and Merchants, as, besides getting news of a vessel, it is frequently necessary that she should be intercepted off the Coast, either in Home or in distant Waters, and ordered to a new destination.

Marine Insurance business has always been the principal business at Lloyd's, but for some years past a very considerable Insurance business for War Risks, Fire, Aircraft, Accident, Employers' Liability, Jewellery, Motor-cars, Burglary, &c., &c., has been transacted by Members of Lloyd's.

All Underwriting Members of Lloyd's deposit with the Committee of Lloyd's Securities and Guarantees in proportion to the amount of business that they transact, and all Underwriters' accounts are audited annually by approved Auditors, who report the result of these Audits to the Committee of Lloyd's. In addition to this, the personal Liability of all Underwriters is unlimited, and the security of a Lloyd's policy is, therefore, fully safeguarded.

To effect an Insurance at Lloyd's, it is necessary to employ the services of an Insurance Broker, who must be either a Member of, or a Subscriber to, Lloyd's.

17. INSURANCE.

Insurance or assurance is a contract whereby one person, called the "**insurer**", undertakes to indemnify another person, called the "**insured**", against a loss which may arise, or to pay a sum of money to him on the happening of a specified event. — The consideration is either a single or a periodical payment, and is called the "**premium**". — In the case of marine insurance the name of "**underwriter**" is more commonly used than "**insurer**". This term arises from the fact that the persons who signify their willingness to take part in the risk as insurers subscribe their names to the policy, and state the sum for which they respectively agree to be liable. — The best known association of underwriters is Lloyd's. — The document in which the contract of insurance is contained is termed the "**policy of insurance**". — The principal kinds of insurance are **accident, fire, life, and marine** Insurance, although it is now possible to insure against almost any conceivable risk. — No insurance of any kind can be effected unless the insurer has an "**insurable interest**" in that which is insured at the time of effecting it. — In order to avoid heavy losses falling upon different companies, insurance companies very commonly **re-insure** when the property is of a valuable character.

The most important branch of insurance is the **marine insurance**. — The insurance broker prepares a brief memorandum of the terms of the intended policy, and for the underwriters to initial it for the amount each of them proposes to underwrite. — This document is called the **slip**. — The principal kinds of marine insurance policies are:

1. the **valued policy** in which the value of the property insured is expressly declared. —
2. the **open policy** by which a provisional insurance of goods is effected for a certain sum, though the value of the goods insured is not definitely stated, but would have to be declared and proved in case of claim or loss. —
3. the **voyage policy** by which the underwriters accept the risk of loss during a specified voyage. —
4. the **time policy** by which an insurance is effected, not for a voyage, but for a specified period not exceeding one year. —
5. the **mixed policy** covers the insurance on a ship from and to certain places for a specified period, so that this policy is of the nature of a voyage policy and of a time policy. —
6. the **floating policy** by which goods are insured for a certain amount. — The goods are not all in one place, but spread over a certain district or area, so that the goods, wherever they may be deposited, are covered, either wholly or in part.

18. SOME SHIPPING TERMS.

A **Bill of Lading** is a printed form of receipt given by the brokers or owners of a vessel for goods which have been received on board, with an agreement as to their delivery, the freight payable, etc. The bill of lading must specify the ship's name, shipper's name, port of designation, number, quantity or weight of the goods shipped, their marks, the agreed conditions concerning freight and

primeage, and the name of the person to whose order the goods are to be delivered. —

Bottomry. — A monetary loan in cases of necessity on the security of the ship, or ship and cargo conjointly, the sums so advanced being repayable to the lender a certain number of days after the arrival of the vessel. If the vessel be lost before arrival at destination the lender loses his money, as it is payable only on condition that the vessel arrives.

Charter Party. A contract made between a shipowner and a charterer for the hire of a vessel, or part of her, for a certain period or voyage, at an agreed rate. Charters are either **time, voyage, or demise**. It usually states the number of lay days allowed, the demurrage to be charged should the ship be detained beyond that time, her tonnage, the course she is to pursue, and all details necessary to bind the parties to the terms agreed upon between them.

Demurrage. The charge made by railway companies for detention of railway trucks, horse boxes, etc., under or awaiting load. — Also the charge for delay occasioned to ships, barges, etc., beyond a stipulated free period.

Documentary Bills. A set of bills of exchange having the bills of lading, invoice, and insurance policy attached.

Freight is a charge for the carriage of goods, usually by water.

Haulage is 1) a charge made by railway, dock, or canal companies for use of carriages, trucks, or craft; use of a line of rails; or for the conveyance of loaded or empty trucks, wagons, or craft, between respective points. 2) the act of hauling such trucks, etc.

Jettison is the throwing overboard of goods or part of the ship's tackle in order to save the vessel or to lighten or relieve her in case of emergency. When cargo is jettisoned, that which floats is termed **Flotsam**.

Letter of Hypothecation is a letter given to a banker by the owner of goods described by a bill of lading, when the banker advances money against the goods. Such letter gives the banker a **Lien** on the goods.

Lien is the right to detain goods belonging to another until a certain liability has been met by the owner.

Manifest is a detailed statement of a vessel's cargo giving the bill of lading numbers, marks, number of packages, name of shipper, name of consignee, weight and measurement of goods, rate of freight, and where payable.

Average is damage or loss by sea. — **Average General** is all loss which arises in consequence of extraordinary sacrifices made, or expenses incurred, for the preservation of the ship and cargo. — **Average particular** is any loss occasioned through damage to the ship through accident, e. g. loss of an anchor, damage to goods by seawater, falling of goods overboard, etc.

Primeage was originally a gratuity made by the shipper to the captain of a vessel for his care and trouble in taking charge of goods. — It is now simply an addition (usually 10%) to the freight, deemed to cover the use of the ship's tackle, etc.

Salvage is the reward to a salvor for saving or helping to save property at sea.

Shipping Documents consist of a set of **B. O. L.**, with an insurance policy or insurance receipt, an invoice, and, if necessary, a certificate of origin.

Warrant, Customs, is a document authorizing the warehousekeeper to deliver dutiable goods from a bonded warehouse.

19. CITY NOTES.

Bulgarian Loan Negotiations. — It is understood that negotiations for the Bulgarian refugee loan have been terminated satisfactorily, and M. Moloff has been able to leave London for Sofia. — The loan will bear 7% interest, and, according to present arrangements, the issue price will be about 92. — It was arranged by the League of Nations that the loan should yield a net sum of £ 2,250,000, but in consequence of certain demands made by the French regarding Bulgarian Treasury Bonds issued in 1912, which will be paid off, and other outstanding debts, the total amount of the loan will be larger than was originally contemplated. — The various interested parties have agreed to this. Of the loan about \$ 4,500,000 will be issued in America, £ 250,000 in Holland, and Swiss and Italian houses will participate in the issue. The issue is expected to be made some time this month. The loan agreement is subject to ratification by the Bulgarian Government.

Weardale Steel Company's Profits. — The accounts of another member of the Furness group of companies, the Weardale Steel, Coal and Coke Company, show that profits for the 12 months ended September 30 were little more than half the total for 1924—25, namely, £ 56,374, against £ 106,167. — For a company engaged in the heavy industries such a result must be considered fairly satisfactory in the circumstances which have prevailed. — Doubtless it is partly attributable to the fact that a large proportion of the company's assets — £ 747,329 — consists of investments, regarding which the auditors state that those for which there are quotations are entered at less than present market value. — The dividend on the Preferred and Deferred capital is reduced, that on the Preferred from 8% to the fixed minimum of 6%, and the distribution on the Deferred from 10 4—9% to 5%. A sum of £ 20,000 is transferred from profit and loss to reserve account for general purposes, including depreciation. In order to make this allocation it has been necessary to draw upon the balance forward to the extent of £ 18,000. Lessened business activity arising out of the coal stoppage is indicated by the balance-sheet, debtors having fallen from £ 70,847 to £ 11,741, and debts due by the company from £ 133,049 to £ 67,705.

20. STOCK EXCHANGE (REPORT).

Markets yesterday continued to show a firm front. An increased demand was reported for Continental reconstruction loans. A recovery occurred in Home Railway stocks, the market as usual proving sensitive to a quite moderate demand. The Rubber group showed a better tendency, and a further improvement took place in some of the leading South Africans. Coal and Iron shares remained out of favour. The Electrical group was firmer, though amongst the supply companies City of London went back on the report.

In the Foreign Market strength was shown by the Belgian and German loans, Belgian scrip rising $\frac{3}{8}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ premium. The German loan rose $\frac{1}{2}$ to $103\frac{1}{4}$, while Austrian bonds hardened further to $99\frac{1}{4}$. Hamburg Six per Cents, were firmer at 3 premium. French bonds showed only fractional movement. City of Riga bonds were easier, closing at $34\frac{1}{2}$. The Chinese group was quiet: the Five per Cents of 1896 closed $\frac{1}{2}$ higher at $82\frac{1}{2}$, having been 83 bid, and a similar rise was shown by the Four-and-a-Half per Cents. — Peruvian Corporation Preference was again in demand, the price advancing $\frac{3}{8}$ to $53\frac{1}{4}$. Among Foreign Railway stocks, Leopoldina Ordinary was easier, the intention to stabilize the currency unit at 6d. and the existence of a "bull" account exerting an effect: the stock fell $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $48\frac{1}{4}$. The Buenos Ayres Great Southern was over par. — The feature in the Oil Market was a rise in Trinidad, which closed at nearly 5%, showing a gain of over $\frac{1}{8}$. — The tone of the Rubber Market underwent a general improvement in the afternoon, the price of rubber being firmer at nearly 1s. $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. Dealings have not yet commenced in the recently offered Para Plantations shares. — Tea shares were steady. — Tobacco shares were well maintained, while textile shares had a steady appearance. — Neura shares were dull, falling at first, but recovering later before the close. — Slight falls occurred in Nobel Industries. In the South African Market, De Beers advanced to $17\frac{3}{8}$ and closed at $17\frac{1}{4}$, showing a net gain of $\frac{3}{8}$. African and European were weak, but closed above the worst.

21. A COMPANY PROSPECTUS.

New South Wales $6\frac{1}{2}$ % Inscribed Stock. 1930—1940.

Issue of £ ,000,000.

Price of Issue, £ 100 per cent.

Interest payable 1st February and 1st August.

A Coupon for 10 s. per cent. being Interest on the instalments, payable 1st February, 1921, will be attached to the Scrip. — Principal repayable at par on the 1st August, 1940, the Government of New South Wales having the option to redeem the Stock in whole or in part, at par, on or after the 1st August, 1930, on giving three calendar months' notice.

The Government of New South Wales having complied with the requirements of the Colonial Stock Act, 1900, as announced in the "London Gazette" of the 30th July, 1920, Trustees may invest in this Inscribed Stock subject to the provisions set forth in the Trustee Act, 1893.

THE LONDON COUNTY WESTMINSTER AND PARR'S BANK LIMITED

are instructed by the Government of New South Wales to offer for subscription the above amount of Stock, authorized to be issued under the Act No. 27 of 1919 of the State of New South Wales, intituled the "Loan Act, 1919."

The Loan is raised for Permanent and Reproductive Works.

New South Wales Government Debentures and Stock issued and payable in London, and the interest thereon, the property of persons not domiciled in

New South Wales, are not, and will not be, subject to any taxes, duties, or levies in that State.

The State Debt and Sinking Fund Act, 1904, of the State of New South Wales, provides that appropriation shall be made during each financial year from the Consolidated Revenue Fund, to be placed to the credit of the General Sinking Fund, of the amount of £ 350,000, and such further amount as Parliament may provide.

The Stock now offered will be in addition to, and rank *pari passu* with, the existing £ 2,500,000 New South Wales 6½ per cent. Inscribed Stock, 1930—1940, and will be inscribed under "The Colonial Stock Act, 1877", in the books kept by the London County Westminster and Parr's Bank Limited, and will be transferable free of stamp duty. Interest will be payable halfyearly at the same Bank on the 1st February and 1st August by Dividend Warrants, which will be transmitted by post at the Stockholder's risk. The first payment, at the rate of 10s per cent., being interest on the instalments, will be made on the 1st February, 1921.

Applications will be received at the above Bank, and must be for even hundreds of Stock, and be accompanied by a deposit of £ 5 per cent. on the nominal amount applied for.

In case of partial allotment, the surplus of the amount paid as deposit will be appropriated towards the payment of the instalment due on allotment.

Payment may be made in full on the 30th November, 1920, or on any subsequent day, under discount at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum.

In case of default in the payment of any instalment at its due date the deposit and instalments previously paid will be liable to forfeiture.

Scrip Certificates will be issued after payment of the amount due on allotment, and such Certificates, when paid up in full, will be convertible into Inscribed Stock on or after the 3rd January, 1921, on presentation at the above Bank.

A commission of 5s. per £ 100 Stock will be allowed to Bankers and Stockbrokers on allotments made in respect of applications bearing their stamp.

Prospectuses can be obtained at the following banks: — ...

22. THE COFFEE SITUATION AND OUTLOOK.

The world's visible supply of coffee on Feb. 1, decreased 96,419 bags and was 4,604,914 bags. — The general expectation is that the balance of the 1926/27 crop will show a very decided decrease, and, July 1, 1927, the world's visible, including the interior stocks, will be brought down to about 5,000,000 bags more than on July 1, 1926. — It will be seen that the increase will not be over 1½ months' consumption and, when the decline in prices from a year ago and now, which averages from 4—5 cts., is considered, it is a natural query whether the declines have not discounted the anticipated larger crops expected. — The demand for coffee during January was very unsatisfactory and prices have been more or less nominal and, as we write, there has been a decline from Jan. 1 for Santos of 1¼ c: for Milds, 1½ c to 2½ c. There are explanations in part for these declines, including the fact that the amount of future shipments purchased has been underestimated. — The clearances from Brazil, during

January, were good. The daily receipts in Santos continue to be restricted to 36,000 bags, and the Rio receipts are at a daily average of about 4,000 bags. The World's deliveries for the 7 months of this crop are 12,297,000 bags. — Offerings, cost and freight, from Brazil have gradually declined fully 1c to 1½ from the date of our last month's letter. Very few offers of Rio are being received and the reports are that foreign buyers are willing to pay more than those in our market. Recent tenders are as follows: — prompt shipment Santos 2's, 19¼ c; future shipments Santos Feb/Apr 4's; spots quiet. — There was at no time, during the past few months, a scarcity of mild coffees, and stocks accumulated until there were over 200,000 bags more than the previous year. The arrivals of Mild coffees for the 7 months of the crop were 3,000,000 bags. — Trading in futures on the New York Coffee Exchange has been narrow and is now close to the lowest for this crop. It is largely a hedging market, selling by European and United States buyers against purchases. — We look for no material decline in either actual coffees or futures from the present quotations.

23. HOME COMMERCIAL MARKETS.

London, Dec. 7. — **Wheat.** — There was a rather better inquiry on consumptive account, but actual business was slow. Quotations meanwhile were advanced by 3d. to 6d. per qr. — **Maize** was quiet and obtainable on easier terms owing to the lower initial Argentine advices and a pause in speculative and Continental inquiry. — **La Plata**, afloat, was offered at 31s 3d.; loading at 31s 3d. — **Barley** remained steady. — **Oats** were quiet at late rates. — **Flour.** — No change was made in the official price of local-milled, but imported, especially top grades, were held for full prices. — **Peas** were in quiet request. — **Beans** dull. — **Covent Garden.** — Business was brisk with plentiful supplies on offer. — Quotations: — English apples, 10—18 s. per bushel; Alicante grapes, 1—2s. per lb.; pears, 20 s. per half-case; Tunis dates, 6s. per dozen cartons; pineapples, 1s 5d. each; bananas, 12 s. per crate; Jaffa oranges, 16 s. per box; Brussels sprouts, 2s. 3d. per half-bag.

Cotton. — Liverpool, Dec. 3. — A further slight expansion was noticeable in the spot demand, but only a moderate business was done in American, with quotations advanced 5 points: middling, 6.54 d. — American futures opened 4 to 6 points higher on further covering and outside buying influenced by firm overnight cables and less hedge selling. — New York cable advices were disappointing in the afternoon, and under local and American selling orders prices fell back 6 to 8 points. — Trade calling had a steadying effect later, but the close was quiet at a net rise of 1 point to 7 points. — **Manchester.** — There has been a more cheerful tone about the market to-day, and the turnover of cloth has shown a little expansion. Indian buying continues small, and no real operations of importance are expected until the dear stocks at present in the country are cleared out of the way. About 95% of Egyptian spindles are running, and production is being cleared.

24. THE LONDON GAZETTE.

NEW COMPANIES REGISTERED.

Textiles (Surplus), Limited, £ 52,000 in 50,000 ordinary shares of £ 1 each, and 50,000 deferred shares of 1s. each, to dispose of and deal in all materials, textiles, clothing, boots and articles of all kinds at present sold by the Disposal and Liquidation Commission, and any similar materials and articles which may be or become available for disposal by the said Commission, and to enter into any contracts of insurance, or reinsurance in respect thereof and comprised in an agreement with the said Commission. The signatories to the memorandum of association are D. Walker and N. F. Cameron. The signatories are to appoint the first directors. The holders of the ordinary shares shall (*inter alia*) be entitled to a cumulative preferential dividend of 20 per cent per annum. Registered office, 35, Old Jewry, E. C.

DISSOLUTIONS OF PARTNERSHIP.

John Hayes, George Wilfred Hayes, and Ernest Sutcliffe, trading as John Hayes & Co., stuff and woollen merchants, 6 Drake Street, Bradford, August 31. All debts by George Wilfred Hayes and Ernest Sutcliffe, **who will continue as John Hayes & Co.**

Rennie Landless and Frank Landless, trading as R. & F. Landless, cloth agents and manufacturers, 11 Bridge Street, Manchester, September 1. All debts by Rennie Landless, who will continue as R. Landless.

Mary Elizabeth Abraham, Ethel Gray, and Thomas Moulds Abraham, trading as John Abraham & Brother, silk dyers and finishers Waller Street, Macclesfield, Cheshire, August 31. All debts by Thomas Moulds Abraham, **who will continue on his own account.**

William Reid and Robert Ossibrooke Hutton, trading as Brook and Reid, drapers and manufacturers of skirts, etc., 8, 9 and 10 King Street, Margate, and as Ossibrooke & Reid, 75, 77, 79, 93, 97 and 99 Sydenham Road, Sydenham, S.E.26, and as William Reid & Co., 177 Rushey Green, Catford, August 31. All debts by William Reid, **who will continue.**

BUSINESS TRANSFERS.

Ashton-under-Lyne. — The controlling interest in Messrs. E. Roebuch, Limited, general and furnishing drapers, 279-285 Stamford-street, has been acquired, as from September 15, by Mr. B. Walton, of Ashton-on-Mersey. The necessary valuations of stocks, &c., were made by Messrs. Powell and Sons, of Hull, on behalf of the retiring directors, and by Mr. A. F. Craven, of Manchester and Birmingham, on behalf of Mr. Walton.

Bedford. — Messrs. Wm. Houghton and Sons, 42, Newgate-street, E.C., have sold and transferred the general drapery and men's outfitting business of Mr. E. G. Crick, 41 and 43, Cauldwell-street, to Mr. George Steed, 46, Bloemfontein-road, Shepherd's Bush. The same firm acted in the valuation of the stock between the parties.

Harrogate. — Messrs. A. R. Brett and Co., Limited, of Manchester and Birmingham, have sold and transferred the art needlework and fancy drapery business of the Misses E. and E. Lunn, 20A, West Park, Harrogate, to Mrs. Campbell, of "Bridge Cote", Menston-in-Wharfedale, Yorks, and acted between the parties in the necessary negotiations.

Manchester. — Messrs. Joshua Jones and Co., of Manchester, have sold and transferred the general drapery business on as "The Little Wonder," 273, 275, and 277, Ashton Old-road, Manchester, from Messrs. Scriveners, Limited, to Messrs. Ogden and Parker, of Oldham-street, Manchester, and have completed the negotiations and necessary transfer on behalf of all parties.

MEETINGS OF CREDITORS.

Lascelles Mortimer & Co., Lim., 453B, Brixton Road, SW., manufacturers agents, exporters, and importers. — Under the compulsory winding-up order made against the above company on December 14, 1920, a meeting of the creditors was held at the

Board of Trade Offices, Carey Street, W.C., on September 30. Mr. Phillips, the Official Receiver, presided, and reported that no statement of affairs had yet been filed, and the company kept no minute book and no accounts. Although the company was formed in August, 1920, with a nominal capital of £ 1,000 in £ 1 shares, no shares, were ever issued. When the Department's inspector went down to the company's office, after the making of the order, to look after the assets, he found the police making inquiries—inquiries in which the Official Receiver's department were able to assist, and in the result the two directors Lascelles and Mortimer were charged with conspiring to defraud and obtaining goods by false pretences, were convicted, and sentenced to 12 months' imprisonment. The Department were able to trace no assets whatever, and he was afraid whatever there was had been misappropriated. — No resolutions were passed, and the Official Receiver will be the liquidator.

SPURLOCK, QUICK AND CO., HOSIERY MANUFACTURERS AND IMPORTERS, 8, FETTER-LANE, MANCHESTER.

A meeting of creditors in this matter was held at the Bell Hotel, Leicester, on Wednesday last week. There was a large attendance, over which Mr. Ratcliffe, representing Messrs. Stern and Co., Limited, London, was elected chairman.

Mr. Dixon, a representative of Messrs. Deacon and Co., C.A., said there had been a meeting in London of the largest creditors a week previous, and they had decided to accept a composition of 10s. in the £, to be paid by four instalments. That, of course, was subject to confirmation by the other creditors. Debtors had carried on business honestly and fairly of many years, but had been badly hit by the slump. There had been no desire to hit the firm, on the contrary to help them on their feet again.

It was explained that there had been a statement of affairs submitted at the first meeting, but since then it had been thought that the computations did not give a sufficient margin for loss on a forced sale. The statement of affairs had been modified, and now showed unsecured trade creditors, £ 32,623; cash creditors, £ 8,481; and partly-secured creditors, £ 1,406, expected to rank for £ 1,156; making total unsecured liabilities, £ 42,261. The assets comprised stock (less 40 per cent.), £ 13,686; good book debts, £ 7,413, estimated to produce £ 7,149; cash, £ 66; fixtures, &c., £ 486; making total assets, £ 21,389. Deducting £ 439 for preferential claims, the net assets are put at £ 20,949, showing a deficiency of £ 21,311.

The Chairman explained that there had been a partner named Anderson, upon whose death claims for paying out accrued. There was a cash debt for £ 7,000 lent by his firm, and another of £ 600, lent by a friend. Those three creditors were willing to let their cash debt stand over until the suggested composition had been paid.

The trading particulars of the past few years were given, and showed a satisfactory state of affairs until last year, when the loss had been enormous. It had been suggested that the affairs of the company be placed in the hands of Messrs. Deacon under a deed of inspectorship.

Mr. Dixon said the original valuations of stock had been made by Mr. Quick, who arrived at the figures from the cost price, less 40 per cent. That, however, had not been regarded as a sufficient margin, and the valuation was further reduced.

It was asked whether the private assets of the partners had been included, and the reply was given that those assets were very slight, and to include them would mean including the private liabilities, which would not be to the benefit of the trade creditors.

The Chairman remarked that at the previous meeting Mr. Quick had been very sanguine of ultimate success if allowed to carry on. In the event of the suggestion of the smaller meeting not being accepted, the offer of his firm to stand down for their £ 7,000 cash debt would be withdrawn.

It was eventually decided that the meeting adopt the suggestion of the previous meeting of creditors, that a composition of 10s. in the £, payable in four quarterly instalments, be accepted in favour of the trade creditors, and that a deed of inspectorship in favour of Messrs. Deacon and Co. be entered into.

In the subsequent discussion Mr. Dixon explained that one of the largest creditors was the Public Trustee in respect of debts held over during the war and due to

Prof. M. Drvodell: »Engleska trgovačka čitanka«.

German traders, payment in full for which was guaranteed by the Government. He had no doubt the Public Trustee would agree to the acceptance of 10s. in the £, and take his chance of the remainder, rather than force matters to an issue.

A committee consisting of representatives of the five largest creditors was elected.

PETITION.

MARK SAMUELS (TRADING AS SAMUELS AND CO.), CONFECTIONER AND TOBACCONIST, 66, BOW ROAD, E.

This debtor filed his own petition on October 11 th, and the statutory first meeting of creditors was held at the London Bankruptcy Court on October 21st. A statement of the debtor's affairs had been lodged showing gross liabilities £ 1,398, expected to rank for dividend £ 1,201, against assets valued at £ 310.

The debtor, in a preliminary examination, had stated that he was a Polish Jew, and had not been naturalised in this country. He came to London, with capital of £ 60, to evade military service, and for some years was in employment. He then became a partner in a grocer's business in the Mile End Road. Later on, he left the partnership and started on his own account as a retail confectioner and tobacconist at 66, Bow Road, E., where he traded until the date of the receiving order. After six months he added a wholesale branch and continued successfully until the date of the Armistice. By this time he had been able to invest £ 1,000 in War Loan. Afterwards the business declined, his stock depreciated in value, and he found himself short of ready money. To tide over his difficulties he realised his War Loan, the whole amount being used in payment of pressing debts. In September last he called his creditors together and offered them 5s. in the £ by instalments. This was accepted by all the creditors except the London Confectionery Company, Ltd, who issued a writ. Subsequently execution was levied at his premises, and he decided to file his petition. The failure was attributed to depreciation of stock and decline of trade since the Armistice.

DEED OF ARRANGEMENT.

F. HOLLINGDRAKE AND CO. (FRANK HOLLINGDRAKE AND ARNOLD JOHN HOLLINGDRAKE, TRADING AS). WHOLESALE MILLINERY WAREHOUSEMEN, 64, GODWIN-STREET, BRADFORD.

Deed dated September 8; filed September 15. Liabilities, secured, £ 195; unsecured, £ 5,609; net assets, £ 2,411. Deed of arrangement whereby it is agreed that the debtors shall form the business into a limited liability company, and to pay creditors under this deed a composition of 10s. in the £ in cash by instalments, viz., 5s. within 14 days of date hereof, 2s. 6d. at three months, and 2s. 6d. at six months from date hereof; to be secured by issue or transfer to trustee of debentures of the company to be allotted to debtors, creditors to receive fully-paid preference shares of the company of £ 1 each for the balance of debts due to each creditor. Trustee, Mr. B. T. Crew, C.A., 4, Dove-court, Old Jewry, E.C.

Separate estate of F. Hollingdrake: Liabilities, unsecured, £ 18; net assets, £ 220.

DEEDS of ASSIGNMENT.

Wilkinson & Fletcher, manufacturers, Crossflatts Mill, near Bingley.

A deed of assignment has been executed for the benefit of the creditors. The firm have been in existence a few years, and have recently built and fitted the mill at Crossflatts.

The statement of affairs, as submitted to the meeting of the creditors, showed total liabilities £ 28,222 (& 13,089 due to unsecured creditors). The deficiency is put at £ 24,873.

Mr. A. Smith and Mr. E. B. Jacques, accountants, of Keighley, have been appointed joint trustees, with a committee of inspection.

Harry Fenton, blanket manufacturer, Dewsbury and Scarborough.

Deed of assignment of real and personal estate upon trust dated September 19. Trustee: Henry Gaskell Blackburn, Leeds. The gross amount of property is given as £ 2,183,691, value of securities £ 917,219, leaving net value of property £ 1,266,472. The gross liabilities are stated to be £ 1, 1284,00. Debt covered by securities. £ 738,923. Net liabilities, £ 389,476. Mr. Harry Fenton is chairman and principal shareholder of the Fenton Textile Association, Ltd., Batley, Leeds, and Morley.

PRIVATE ARRANGEMENTS.

John Galloway Watson, trading as Fleming & Watson, art furnishers, 11 Orchard Street, London, W.

The creditors were called together on September 23 at the offices of Messrs. Corfield & Cripwell, accountants, Balfour House, E.C.

According to the statement of affairs presented the liabilities totalled £ 4,402 (£ 724 due to the trade, and £ 3,178 to cash creditors). £ 500 was included as an approximate claim for dilapidations. There was a secured creditor for £ 400. The assets were estimated to realise £ 787 net.

Mr. W. Osborne said the principal cash creditor was Mr. R. D. McMillan, scheduled for £ 1,978. The money was advanced in 1919 for the purpose of paying off a balance owing to the executors of a late partner. The debtor's wife was a cash creditor for £ 1,200, but it was understood that the claim would be withdrawn. The liability of £ 500 was entirely connected with the lease of the premises, 11 Orchard Street, which expires in December next year. It was explained that in previous accounts prepared by the firm a debit had not been taken in relation to Mrs. Watson's claim, nor any reserve made for the probable claim for dilapidations under the lease. These items amount to £ 1,700.

The creditors expressed sympathy with the debtor, who is advanced in years. It was agreed that he could not continue the business without substantial financial support.

No offer was forthcoming and it was unanimously decided that he should execute a deed of assignment to Mr. Osborne as trustee, the assets to be realised as quickly as possible.

RECEIVING ORDES.

WALTER THOMAS SUTTON, GROCER, ETC., HIGH-STREET, NORTHLEACH, GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

The receiving order in this matter was made on August 11, on debtor's own petition. The statement of affairs shows liabilities £ 706 7s. 11 d., against assets estimated to realise £ 599 7s. 3d., from which £ 5 have to be deducted for preferential claims, leaving net assets of £ 594 7s. 3d., or a deficiency of £ 112 0s. 8d. The assets comprise cash at bankers, £ 4; cash deposited with solicitor, £ 10; stock-in-trade £ 350; trade fixtures, etc., £ 20; furniture, £ 15; good book debts, £ 195 7s. 3d.; and bad and doubtful debts, £ 7 19s. 11d., expected to produce £ 5. Debtor attributes his position to bad trade and want of capital. It appears that on May 7, 1920, with £ 160 capital, borrowed from his father, debtor started business at his present address, when he purchased the stock-in-trade and trade fixtures for £ 200, paying £ 100 down, and the balance is stated to have been discharged by supplying goods from time to time from the shop. The books of account kept were takings book, sold ledger, and day book. Creditors began to sue him in January last, but debtor states that he did not become aware of his position until about six weeks ago, and he continued to trade in the expectation that he would be able to retrieve his position.

RECEIVERSHIP (APPOINTMENT OR RELEASE).

Great Easter Confectionery Supply, Ltd.—F W. Marter, of 31, Forthbridge Road, Clapham Common, S.W., as Receiver on October 19th, 1921, under powers contained in debentures August 6th, 1920.

SUNDRIES.

TRADE WILLS.

Sir Alfred Jernyn, of Burleigh House, Goodwins-road, King's Lynn, retired draper, at one time in business in Bedford, and later in King's Lynn, chairman of Messrs. Jernyn, Smart and Smith, Limited, and Berry and Stanyan, Limited, who died June 27, aged 76, left estate value £ 100,573 gross, with net personalty £ 78,349. He left £ 1,200 to various church and charitable institutions.

Mr. Walter Snowden, of Fairfield-terrace, West Park-street, Dewsbury, formerly of Batley Carr, draper and furrier, who died April 15, aged 75, left estate value £ 22,367 gross, with net personalty £ 21,324. The testator left £ 1,000 to the Dewsbury and District General Infirmary, £ 100 to the Dewsbury Tradesmen's Benevolent Institution, and £ 1 for each complete year of service to each employee or assistant serving in his business at his decease.

Following the recent death of Mr. Alfred A. Clark, draper, 1, Ilderton-road, Rotherhithe, S.E., Messrs. Morley, Phillips and Martin, of 118, Wood-street, E.C., have been instructed to value the stock and business for probate purposes.

SALES BY AUCTION.

G. ——— R.

BY DIRECTION OF THE DISPOSAL BOARD.

IMPORTANT SALE BY AUCTION OF
PLANT AND MACHINERY

AT THE ROYAL ENGINEERS' STORES, C.S. DEPOT No. 127,
ABBEY MILLS, CODY ROAD, STEPHENSON STREET,
CANNING TOWN, LONDON, E.

(10 minutes' walk from Canning Town Station, G.E.R.).

IN LOTS TO SUIT BUYERS.

On MONDAY, SEPTEMBER 26th, and following days, at 1 p.m.
precisely each day.

The Following

BAKERY PLANT

will be included in the above Sale :—

11 Moulding, 7 280-lb. Flour Weighing, 6 Kneading, 1 Flour
Blending, 4 Dough Handling-up Machines, by Baker,
Hunt, and others; 84 Bread and Setting Racks, Tempering
and Gauge Tanks, Motors, etc.

PUBLIC VIEW DAYS, THURSDAY, FRIDAY AND SATURDAY
previous to and Mornings of Sale, or Privately, by Orders to
View. Further particulars in Catalogues, which can be
obtained, when ready, from the Auctioneers.

Messrs. BRANSHAW, BROWN and CO.,

Billiter Square Buildings,

Tele. Avenue 144.

London, E.C. 3. 356

SALES BY TENDER.

Hendon (N.W.).—Messrs. Richard Cross and Son, 1A, Wood-street, E.C., opened tenders at their offices on Friday, September 16, for the entire stock-in-trade of Mrs. E. Fynn, trading as "E. Mellish", draper and outfitter, Albion House, 228, The Broadway, W. Hendon, amounting to £ 739, in two lots, both of which were secured

by Messrs. G. Cozens an Co., Limited, Edgware-road, W. Mrs. Fynn is giving up business after some 27 years' trading, and has let her premises to a men's outfitter.

London (E.C.).—Tenders were opened on Tuesday, September 13, at the offices of Messrs. Beecroft, Sons and Nicholson, 12, Wood-street, E.C., on the instructions of the trustee in bankruptcy, Mr. E. J. Webber, F.S.A.A. (Percy Mason and Co., 64, Gresham-street, E.C.), for stock of Stephen Gilbert. The various lots were sold to Mr. J. Wheale, of West Bromwich.

Shrewsbury.—Mr. A. F. Craven, Manchester and Birmingham, opened tenders on the 15th inst. for the stock-in-trade of Messrs. Franklin and Son, 14, 15, Castle-street, on their retirement. Mr. Dodds, of St. Helens, was declared the purchaser.

FRAUD UPON CREDITORS.

After a trial lasting several days, the hearing was concluded at the Central Criminal Court, last week, of the case against Alexander Gould, 50, clerk, and Abe Davis, 27, merchant, who pleaded not guilty of conspiring to cheat and defraud the lawful creditors of the firm of Mundlak and Davis, silk merchants, 10 New Road, London, E., and to defeat the objects of the law of bankruptcy.

Mr. Roland Oliver said it was alleged that attempts were made to get Williams Bros., silk agents, 72 Oxford Street, W., to accept a composition of 6s. in the £ on a debt due to them by Mundlak & Davis. With that object they were declared to have put forward as creditors people to whom no money was due. Gould was employed in the office of Edgar & Co., solicitors, 221 Bishopsgate. Williams Bros. were the representatives of Messrs. Royane, silk manufacturers, Lyons. In 1920, Williams Bros. took into their service a Belgian clerk, Yearner. Messrs. Williams had dealings with Mundlak & Davis, and it was suggested that Davis and Yearner should go into business in partnership. For that purpose Messrs. Williams provided silk valued £ 1,000. Davis said he would not go on with the partnership, but kept the silk and gave bills in payment. On June 8, Davis said he was calling a meeting of creditors and would pay 7s. 6d. in the £, although it subsequently appeared that the proprietor of Mundlak & Davis was a Mrs. Rose Davis. A meeting of creditors was held, when it was stated that Mr. Max Mundlak was a creditor for £ 330, but he, said Counsel, was a dummy, to whom not a penny was owing. Marcus Rabinovitch was shown as a creditor for £ 200, although nothing was due to him, and Mr. Yearner was put down as a creditor for £ 285. As a fact, nothing was due to Yearner, who told Williams Bros. that it was proposed to show him as a creditor. Gould presided at the meeting of creditors, and said that in addition to the creditors named, £ 1,790 was due to Williams Bros., and the assets comprised stock estimated at £ 200, and cash in hand £ 115, while the book debts of £ 600 were all bad; 6s. in the £ was offered, but was refused by Williams Bros.

Both defendants denied the charge, and Mr. Hemmerde called Max Mundlak, job buyer, Hackney, a brother-in-law of Davis, who said that the amount of £ 335 was a genuine debt from Davis to him.

Both defendants were found guilty, and the jury recommended Gould to mercy. A previous conviction was proved against Gould for getting aliens out of the country in 1918; Davis was given a good character.

The Common Serjeant said that the case against Gould was a bad one. He had acted as the managing clerk of the firm, and his was the hand that did the dirty work. Gould was sentenced to ten months' imprisonment, with hard labour, and Davis to three months' imprisonment in the second division.

BUSINESS NAMES REGISTRATION: AN INTERESTING CASE.

The case of Smith & Sons v. Rothman came before Mr. Justice Salter in the King's Bench Division, on Friday, on the direction of the Court of Appeal to decide an issue as to whether or not Messrs. Smith & Sons had made default within the meaning of Section 8 of the Business Names Registration Act, and whether, in the event, the plaintiffs should be granted relief.

Mr. Schwabe, K.C., who appeared for the defendants, explained that the matter arose out of an action which had been tried some time ago, and in which plaintiffs

claimed damages from defendants for breach of contract. Plaintiffs secured judgment, from which defendants appealed. While the case was pending in the Court of Appeal another case was tried (*Kelly v. Smith & Sons*), in the course of which it transpired that Messrs. Smith & Sons had committed breaches of the Business Names Registration Act.

The plaintiffs, continued counsel, had been registered as cardboard box manufacturers at Rupert Street, Leaman Street, London, while defendants were cigarette manufacturers. It was the defendants' contention that there was one other partner in addition to those shown on the registration form. They would further urge that plaintiffs, who were described as cardboard box manufacturers in that form, were dealing in clothing and army stores to a very large extent of business. One of the disabilities of such breaches would be that the plaintiffs could not sue.

Mr. Bevan, K.C., for the plaintiffs, maintained that it had never occurred to his clients that any transaction they had with Mrs. Moray might constitute her a partner in law; certainly they never appreciated such a circumstance, nor did they desire it.

His lordship, in his judgment, concluded that there was a third partner, who was not described in the register. That mistake he did not think was accidental or due to any inadvertence. His lordship could find no other sufficient cause to grant the relief asked for. He would, therefore, make a declaration that default had been made, and that there was no ground for relief.

SLOVNICE, RJEČNICI, LISTARI:

a) Hrvatsko-srpski i staroslavenski

Daničić D.: Oblici hrvatskog ili srpskog jezika (br. 1554.) D 20.—

Dutković Ivo: Stenografski rječnik (br. 1914.) D 56.—

Fillpović: Hrvatsko-njemačka besjedovnica (br. 697.) D 50.—

Fillpović: Hrvatsko-njemački džepni rječnik (br. 957.) D 50.—

Gavazzi, Dr. M.: Pravopisni rječnik (br. 1215.) D 20.—

Harambašić-Kokotović: Hrvat. pučki pismovnik (br. 958.) D 18.—

Klaić-Miller: Deutsch-Kroatischer Dolmetscher (br. 959.) D 12.—

Klaić-Miller: Lehrgang der kroatisch-serbischen Sprache (br. 960.) D 30.—

Klaić-Miller: Schlüssel zum Lehrgang der kroatisch-serbischen Sprache (br. 961.) D 10.—

Kokotović N.: Novi uzor listar (br. 962.) D 60.—

Ljubavni listar (br. 963.) D 20.—

Maretić Dr.: Gramatika i stilistika hrv. ili srp. jezika (br. 964.) D 130.—

Musić: Rječnik hrvatsko-slovenski (br. 966.) D 20.—

Novotni Vj.: Slovnica staroslavenska (br. 967.) D 10.—

Pechan A.: Pismovnik za šegrtske škole (br. 968.) D —.—

Popović, Dr. M.: Poetika (br. 1842.) D 16.—

Rešetar, prof. Milan: Elementar Grammatik der kroatischen (serbischen) Sprache (latinicom i ćirilicom) vezano (br. 1555.) D 40.—

Rešetar M.: Elementargrammatik der kroatischen Sprache (br. 1555.) D 40.—

Rešetar M.: Elementargrammatik der serbischen Sprache (br. 1555.) D 40.—

Rešetar M.: Elementargrammatik der serbischen Sprache (br. 1555.) D 40.—

Rožić, prof. Vatroslav: Barbarizmi u hrv. jeziku (br. 1526.) D 18.—

Šeringer: Priručni rječnik tudih riječi i fraza (br. 1529.) D 32.—

Šević Milan: Hrvatska ili srpska gramatika za niže razrede srednjih škola (br. 1779.) D 34.—

Šiller Drag: Poslovna pisma (br. 970.) D —.—

Šiller D.: Gramatika u osnovnim školama. Metoda gramatičke obuke, predavanja i diktati za III. i IV. razred (br. 1669.) D 12.—

b) Bugarski.

Benigar: Bugarska slovnica sa čitankom (br. 971.) D 15.—

c) Češki.

Musulin Stj.: Češka gramatika i uputa u češko trgovačko dopisivanje (br. 1717.) D 60.—

Režny Vojtěch: Početnica češkoga jezika (br. 972.) D 15.—

d) Engleski.

Drvodelić M.: Englesko trgovačko dopisivanje (br. 1597.) D 32.—

Drvodelić M.: Engleska gramatika (br. 1997.) D —.—

Kozmopolita: Engleski učitelj (br. 973.) D 3.—

Lochmer AL: Laki način engleski bez učitelja (br. 974.) D 40.—

Lochmer AL: Hrvatsko-engleski džepni rječnik (br. 975.) D 24.—

Lochmer AL: Englesko-hrvatski rječnik. Veliko izdanje, vezano u platno D 200.—

(br. 7000.) D 15.—

Petrović Voj.: Elementarna gramatika engleskog jezika za Srbe (Gaspey — Otto, Sauer), ćiril. (br. 976.) D 45.—

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Bubalo: Esperanto-hrvatsko-srpski rječnik (br. 1576.) D 20.—

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Maruzzi: Esperanto gramatika (br. 1744.) D 20.—

Tomić: Du Sudslavaj Popoldabeloj (br. 1577.) D 2.20

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e) Francuski.

Adamović: Francusko-hrvatski rječnik. (br. 977.) D 60.—

Gavazzi Ar.: Hrvatsko-francuski rječnik (br. 978.) D 50.—

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Ploetz, Dr. K.: Francuska početnica (br. 981.) D 40.—

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Marn, prof.: Homerov rječnik (br. 985.) D 20.—

Musić, Dr. A.: Gramatika grčkog jezika (br. 1934.) D 85.—

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g) Latinski.

Katić, prof. Fr.: Srpsko-hrvatsko-latinski rječnik (br. 987.) D 100.—

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Žeplić, prof. Milan: Latinske i hrvatske zadaće (o padežima), I. dio (br. 989.) D 30.—

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Gyarkorlati Módszer: (br. 995.) D 20.—

Hartman: Praktischer Lehrgang (br. 996.) D 12.—

Kozmopolita: Mađarski učitelj (br. 997.) D 3.—

i) Njemački.

Drvodelić M.: Njemačko trgovačko dopisivanje (br. 1598.) D 32.—

Fibel (C) (br. 998.) D 15.—

Ivkanec T.: Njemačka slovnica za više pučke škole (br. 999.) D 40.—

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Miller Ferdo: Praktična uputa u njemački jezik (br. 1001.) D 45.—

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Roth Jul.: Prva njemačka vježbenice za opće pučke škole (br. 1003.) D 24.—

Šamšalović Dr.: Njemačko-hrvatski priručni rječnik (br. 1004.) D 36.—

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k) Ruski.

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l) Talijanski.

Kozmopolita: Talijanski učitelj (br. 1010.) D 3.—

Kobenzl J.: Talijanska palestra. Praktična slovnica talijan. jezika D 30.—

Kobenzl J.: Gramatica teoretica pratica della lingua serbo croata D 30.—

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M. Š.: Talijansko trgovačko dopisivanje (br. 1692.) D 30.—

Petrović Voj.: Gramatika talijanskog jezika (Gaspey — Otto — Sauer), ćiril. D 45.—

Poparić: Talijanska slovnica (br. 1011.) D 55.—

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Šegvić-Kerubin: Gramatika talijanskog jezika (br. 2001.) D —.—

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